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An Overlooked Problem of the History Teacher: His Education

By WILLIAM HABBERTON
University of Illinois High School

I had just attended the High School Conference, held annually on the campus of the University of Illinois. It was a great gathering of some five thousand Illinois teachers. What I did not like about the Conference was this: notwithstanding the great number and varied character of the topics and problems discussed, hardly any mention was made of scholarship. Indeed at this Conference (and I have been frequently conscious of the same thing in other teachers' meetings) there seemed to be almost a spirit of antagonism to the idea that a teacher—a high school teacher—should devote himself to study and learning. "Hardly any teachers these days," commented one of the more prominent speakers, "fail because of poor scholarship." Unfortunately, the address which followed indicated all too clearly that the speaker's belief was also his practice.

In the field of history one is especially aware of this attitude relative to the teacher's responsibilities and their accomplishment. The mails bring to his desk a veritable flood of materials offering "methods," "devices," "aids," notebooks, workbooks, syllabi, all of which are calculated to solve the history teacher's "problems." The uninitiated might suspect that the history teacher were a magician, pulling innumerable educational articles out of a hat, and being "successful" in proportion to the number and surprising character of the articles produced. In brief, there seems to be a marked tendency to emphasize the mechanics of teaching to the decided neglect of the material taught.

It is not my purpose to minimize the importance of methodology in the teaching of history. Everyone who has taught history or anything else knows that he must be constantly thinking and planning how best to perform the tasks attendant upon the

"directing of learning." If he does not give careful attention to the techniques of procedure, he can hardly be a really good teacher regardless of his scholarship or personal qualifications. On the other hand, it is my opinion that in our preoccupation with devices and plans we are prone to neglect a far more urgent and indispensable prelude to good teaching, the general intellectual preparation and development of the teacher himself.¹ In our concentration upon "problems"—problems of procedures and techniques—we are quite likely to overlook the distinctly fundamental problem of the teacher's education.

To be perfectly candid about the matter, let us admit that most history teachers are woefully ignorant of history. Is it to be wondered at? It is doubtful whether the average beginning teacher, giving one or more courses in history, has had in the aggregate more than fifteen semester hours' work in college history.² It is unlikely, indeed, that he has had *any* courses dealing with much of the infinitely great periods embraced in our general high school courses. He has studied American history, English history, European history—but he teaches the history of the world! Is there really any subject in the high school curriculum for the teaching of which preparation is so incomplete and uncertain as the courses in history? But this is far from being the worst of it. The fifteen-hour average teacher is much better off than many. For there still persists in places, in spite of all, the belief that *anybody* can teach history; therefore, the *coach* gets the job!³ (Enter devices, etc.)

Extreme cases there are, but they are not the ones that concern us, save as we may use our influence in favor of more exacting certification laws, and are able to combat the erroneous notion that the history class will fare all right in even the hands

of the teacher whose sole qualification lies in the fact that he has an unoccupied class hour. It is the "average" teachers whom we are concerned with, the group to which most of us belong. For these the situation is far from hopeless if they are intelligent and energetic—intelligent enough to recognize their educational deficiencies, energetic enough to try to overcome them. How may they do this? By reading and study.

The question of *what* to read is more difficult. I believe, however, that one should begin (our "average" beginning teacher) by reading general works, and then proceed to treatises on more limited fields. Let us suppose that he is teaching world history. He will do well to read such books as Breasted's *Ancient Times*, Munro's *The Middle Ages*, Hayes' *A Political and Social History of Modern Europe*. This reading, thoughtfully done, should give the new teacher a review of his college courses (History 1, 10, 25, etc.), and at the same time supplement and unify the knowledge which such courses have given him. If he is teaching American history, his procedure will be a similar one. The familiar texts mentioned are only suggestive and are not intended to be accepted as necessarily the best for the purpose indicated.

After getting this review (or "view," in the case of our coach), the beginning teacher may well devote himself to more specialized reading: having seen the forest a little more clearly in its general outlines, he may well look at the individual trees. Especially good for this intensifying and vivifying of knowledge is the reading of biography, interest in which has been so manifest in recent years. Incidentally, I believe that the biographic approach to history, whatever scientific considerations it may involve, is peculiarly effective for students of high school age; and the history teacher who has read widely and appreciatively in this field of literature is likely to have a helpful entry to the interests of boys and girls, and, further, be able to answer well those alert and responsive ones who ask at times, "What is a good book to read?"

The history teacher must read current periodicals and newspapers. He cannot be a good teacher unless he does. He must know the present as well as the past, and see relations between them. Stimulating periodicals which deal courageously with vital issues, journals of history and the social sciences, newspapers of quality he must find time to read. He must read alertly, critically. He must be careful not to succumb to the prejudices of this side or that. He must, of all people, not fail to regard Bacon's admonition to "weigh and consider."

The history teacher must read more than history. If he is to have a wealth of "background"

from which to draw, if his illustrations are to be pointed and effective, he must know something of the great literature of the world, he must know something of its arts, science, and philosophy: he must realize that what men have thought and said and written is quite as vital a part of history as what they have done.

Some one will say, "I live and work in a small town. Where shall I obtain my reading material?" Perhaps the small town public library will help answer the question. Have you stopped to investigate? If the books which you desire are not available, perhaps the librarian will be willing to make some purchases that you suggest, and, incidentally, thank you for your interest and coöperation. In even the small library there is the quintessence of a liberal education, but it is only for those who avail themselves of it.

Another valuable source of reading material is found in the state libraries. While they may not contain everything desired by the history teacher, they do have much that is useful. The history teacher should familiarize himself with their services, both for the advancement of his own education and for materials immediately useful in his classes.

There is still another source: the bookstores and the publishers. The serious teacher-student should make such additions to his personal library as circumstances may permit. The owning and presence of books are themselves provocative of reading and conducive to pleasure in scholarship.

In addition to the self-education implied in what has been said relative to reading, the teacher of history should take advantage of whatever opportunities that may be available for education of a more formal character. I refer particularly to the summer sessions in the universities. In writing of the education of the history teacher I am not thinking primarily of tenure of positions and "professional advancement": that is, I am not considering the "successful" teacher as one who simply holds his job, or gets a better one. Nevertheless, I may properly call attention to the fact that an increasing number of history teachers, without giving up their work during the school year, are obtaining graduate degrees, or otherwise furthering their preparation for teaching, and thereby rendering themselves more eligible candidates for desirable positions in the future. To illustrate: at the University of Illinois in the summer session of 1921 there were eight students enrolled in graduate courses in history; in 1931 there were eighty-four. Practically all of these persons were history teachers or prospective history teachers. Those who attend the summer schools may not be the best teachers, but the fact that they are willing to devote

their vacations to study is indicative of a desire for improvement that is worthy of the consideration of any superintendent or board of education. Attendance at the university is valuable not only for what one gets from his courses, but also for the stimulus afforded by contact with scholarly minds and new ideas. It serves to renew the intellectual fires which burn so low in us all at times, and which must have new fuel if their glow and warmth are to last.

We history teachers should travel (if we can), hear stimulating lectures (if we can), enjoy good music, read, study—seek by every possible means to educate ourselves. In the finest sense of the word, we should try to make ourselves cultured men and women. The really effective, satisfyingly successful history teacher must have the broadest culture possible. The problem of his education is a constantly challenging one. It will never be fully solved. It should not be.

Does this sort of thing constitute a selfish, nar-

row educational philosophy? Everyone must decide for himself. I personally am convinced, that only through assiduous application to our own education, can we who teach accomplish our ultimate aims of education for those entrusted to our care.

¹This opinion is based upon observation, and may constitute a confession! It has been confirmed, however, by my experience with the "practice teachers" in history in the teacher training school with which I am associated. The results of examinations in subject matter indicate serious deficiencies on the part of candidates for teaching positions, candidates whose general academic preparation is unquestionably superior to that of the average beginning teacher in the state.

²I refer to the situation in Illinois. It is better in some states (Indiana, for example); quite as bad or worse in others.

³In Illinois it is possible for one to teach (in an accredited high school) courses in history if he has had "at least 5 semester hours of preparation in specific subjects taught" (i.e., American history, European history, etc.), and provided further that he has had a minimum of 16 semester hours in the "Social Studies," including not only any possible courses in history, but civics, economics, and sociology!

The Textbooks and the New Discoveries, Emphases, and Viewpoints in American History

By **IRENE T. BLYTHE**
George Washington University

New historical discoveries, emphases, and viewpoints in American history have considerably altered our opinions and judgments on many phases of our national history. To the historian and the scholar the results of American historical research have been made available in the form of articles in historical reviews and reports, and in historical monographs and general histories. To what extent has this research been made available to the secondary school students through an incorporation of research results into secondary American history texts? In an attempt to throw some light on this question I have made a study¹ of fifty-three secondary American history texts, published from 1897 to 1930, to determine to what extent these texts incorporate thirty-two new discoveries, emphases, and viewpoints, published from 1893 to 1928.

The texts for the study were selected as representing texts most generally used. In making this selection I had the aid of two studies previously made.² These fifty-three texts include thirty-six different texts (i.e., either written by different au-

thors or so revised as to constitute a different text) and seventeen texts which are later editions (with little or no revision) of the earlier prints. The distribution of texts as to date of publication is as follows: 4 texts, 1897-1900; 5 texts, 1901-1910; 13 texts, 1911-1920; and 31 texts, 1921-1930. Of particular interest to the teacher are the fifteen texts published from 1926 to 1930. It is this last group of texts which the students in the secondary schools are using at this time. These are the texts which the teachers are relying upon to give the students the results of the latest research.

The selection of discoveries, viewpoints, and emphases to be used as the basis of the study was not made without considerable trepidation. The purpose of the study, however, is not to advocate the inclusion in secondary texts of these specific views, emphases, and discoveries but the purpose is rather to show the status of late research in secondary texts. The selection of views is my own made on the basis of recent college courses in history and an ordinary amount of graduate training, supplemented by suggestions from several

sources.³ I have assumed the responsibility for these selections as representing the contribution of historical scholarship to American historiography in the last forty years. This study is regarded as merely an introduction to a much needed comprehensive study of secondary texts in the several fields of history to determine whether the texts in general use are actually giving students information in conformity with the judgments and opinions of historical scholars. For such a study, which would use the inclusion of late research as one criterion for judging secondary texts, the new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries ought to be selected by the consensus of several leading historical scholars.

The new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries which were used for this introductory study include the following:

1. Frederick J. Turner's interpretation (1893) of the American frontier as a vital influence in determining the development of American government, life, and character.⁴
2. George L. Beer's view (1893) that England's policy of control of American colonial commerce was only a part of the mercantile theory accepted by all nations at that time and was not tyrannically enforced with the purpose of injuring the colonies but was, in some respects, favorable to colonial development.⁵
3. Charles M. Andrew's and Herbert L. Osgood's view (1898) that the American colonies should be studied not as an isolated topic but as a part of British imperial history.⁶
4. George O. Trevelyan's view (1898) that the American Revolution was a phase of the English struggle for reform in government.⁷
5. Claude H. Van Tyne's emphasis (1902) on the importance in the American Revolution of the Loyalists (probably at least one-third of the population) who opposed the separation from the British Empire and who were persecuted and exiled on account of their stand.⁸
6. Clyde A. Duniway's discovery (1902) that the French withdrew from Mexico in 1867 largely because of European conditions and not because of Seward's ultimatum.⁹
7. A. T. Mahan's emphasis (1903) on sea power as the decisive factor in the War of 1812.¹⁰
8. Ellen C. Semple's emphasis (1903) on the importance of geographic factors in determining the development of the United States.¹¹
9. Ida M. Tarbell's view (1906) that political forces rather than economic principles have been important in our tariff making.¹²
10. Emerson D. Fite's view (1910) that the English need of Northern wheat was an important factor in determining English action toward the Confederacy in the American Civil War.¹³
11. C. A. Beard's interpretation (1913) of the Constitution as an economic document.¹⁴
12. F. A. Golder's discovery (1915) showing that the Russian fleet came to American shores during the Civil War in order that the fleet should be in position to prey on English commerce if the trouble in Poland should result in war.¹⁵
13. A. H. Lybyer's discovery (1915) of sources which he used to show that the capture of Constantinople in 1453 was not related to the discovery of America because the capture of Constantinople had not caused the exploration for new routes to India.¹⁶
14. Carl Becker's view (1915) that the American Revolution was a double revolution, that is, a revolution for separation from Great Britain and a revolution for the "democratization of American society."¹⁷
15. Edward Corwin's emphasis (1916) on the view that France made the alliance of 1778 to recover her "lost preëminence on the continent of Europe."¹⁸
16. Edward Channing's discovery (1917) of a source which showed that a royal order was responsible for the closure of the Mississippi in 1802.¹⁹
17. Edward Channing's view (1917) that in the election of 1800 the Federalists were not removed from office by a political revolution but were removed by the political activities of one man in one state, that is, that the "Revolution of 1800" was not a revolution in fact.²⁰
18. Clarence W. Alvord's view (1917) that the "British muddling" in the administration of the West was one of the potent causes of the American Revolution.²¹
19. A. M. Schlesinger's emphasis (1917) on the difference between the attitude of the merchants and that of the radicals toward England and on the different relations existing between the merchants and radicals as the radicals gained control in the colonies.²²
20. Justin H. Smith's view (1919) that the Mexican War was not a war of conquest but was a war forced upon the United States by the acts and threats of Mexico.²³
21. J. T. Adam's emphasis (1921) on the interpretation of the "great emigration" to New England as economic rather than political and religious in origin, and as only a part of a greater emigration of English poor to the New World.²⁴
22. Tyler Dennett's views (1922): (1) that the Open Door Policy of 1899 was only a reassertion of the most-favored-nation policy which the United States had followed in the East from 1844,²⁵ and (2) that the United States supports the territorial integrity of China because a strong China best serves the interests of the United States.²⁶
23. A. M. Schlesinger's emphasis (1922) on the view that the states' right argument, resulting in secession, was not the exclusive doctrine of the South but was rather a doctrine advanced by practically all the states when self interests conflicted with federal policy.²⁷
24. A. M. Schlesinger's emphasis (1922) on the view

that radicalism and conservatism are relative terms and that in reform and humanitarian movements of American history the "radical of to-day may become the conservative of to-morrow."²⁸

25. S. F. Bemis's view (1923) that Jay's Treaty was an economic necessity for the maintenance of the struggling American nation.²⁹
26. Charles Evans Hughes's emphasis (1923) on the view that misinterpretations of the Monroe Doctrine are common and that the Monroe Doctrine is not the sole policy of the United States in this hemisphere.³⁰
27. Julius Pratt's view (1925) that the expansionists' desire for more territory was an important factor influencing the declaration of war in 1812.³¹
28. Orlando W. Stephenson's emphasis (1925) on the fact that French aid sent in the form of supplies, made possible the victory of Saratoga.³²
29. Edward Channing's emphasis (1925) on the view that British fear of American democracy was an important factor in determining England's attitude toward the North during the Civil War.³³
30. F. L. Owsley's view (1925) that the failure of the South in the Civil War was partly due to dissension among the states concerning state rights.³⁴
31. Dexter Perkins's views (1927): (1) that the Monroe Doctrine had little immediate effect upon the activities of European nations 1823 to 1826,³⁵ and (2) that the Doctrine was not considered so significant a step (as we conceive it to-day) by Central and South American countries, although it was accepted by them as a means of protection.³⁶
32. Clarence H. Haring's emphasis on the Monroe Doctrine (as now interpreted in Latin America) as the cause of much of the distrust of the United States by South Americans.³⁷

In analyzing the texts we shall note (1) to what extent this new scholarship is represented and (2) the length of time intervening between the publication of the new viewpoint, emphasis, or discovery and its incorporation into these secondary texts.

Table I shows the extent to which these new views, emphases, and discoveries have been incorporated into the fifty-three selected texts. In Table I "per cent of texts" means the per cent of these texts published *after* the publication of the view, hence the number of texts considered under the different views varies: e.g., Turner's view of 1893 is considered in its relation to 53 texts, Beard's view of 1913 to 43 texts, and Stephenson's emphasis of 1925 to 19 texts. Table I shows that the six views (numbers 1-6) which have been incorporated into more than 75 per cent of the texts were published before 1905 and that the eight views (numbers 26-33) which have been incorporated into 5 per cent or less of the texts have been

published since 1913. These data indicate that the more recent views have not been generally included in secondary texts, that is, the textbook writers appear to act slowly in accepting these new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries. Is it not revealing that twenty-five views or 76 per cent of the views have been incorporated into less than 50 per cent of the texts, and that eleven views or 33 per cent of the views have been incorporated into less than 10 per cent of the texts?

Further evidence likewise indicates a hesitancy or a neglect on the part of textbook writers in incorporating new viewpoints into secondary texts. The data in Table II show the number of years which intervened between the publication of these views and the first incorporation of each into one or more of the secondary texts included in this study. In Table II numbers 16 to 27 are particularly interesting. Here are twelve views which required from seven to sixteen years to become incorporated into these secondary texts; however,

TABLE I
PERCENTAGES OF FIFTY-THREE TEXTS WHICH CONTAIN THE
NEW VIEWPOINTS, EMPHASES, AND DISCOVERIES

Author	Date	Viewpoint, emphasis, or discovery on	% of texts
1. Van Tyne	1902	Loyalists in the Revolution	100
2. Semple	1903	Geographic factors	96
3. Andrews	1898	Relation of colonies to England and the British Empire	94
4. Beer	1893	Commercial policy of England	94
5. Turner	1893	Significance of the frontier	91
6. Trevelyan	1898	The Revolution and English reform	80
7. Haring	1928	The Monroe Doctrine in South America	56
8. Adams	1921	New England Migration	55
9. Mahan	1903	Sea power in the War of 1812	46
10. Dennett	1922	Purpose of Open Door Policy	33
11. Alvord	1917	British Western policy	32
12. Tarbell	1906	Politics and the tariff	28
13. Schlesinger	1917	Colonial merchants in the Revolution	21
14. Becker	1915	The double Revolution	17
15. Smith	1919	The Mexican War	16
16. Pratt	1925	Expansionists in the War of 1812	16
17. Duniway	1902	French withdrawal from Mexico	16
18. Bemis	1923	Jay's Treaty	15
19. Channing	1917	Election of 1800	11
20. Channing	1925	Democracy issue and the Civil War	11
21. Owsley	1925	States' rights in Civil War	11
22. Schlesinger	1922	States' rights in American history	11
23. Corwin	1916	Reason for French alliance of 1778	8
24. Lybyer	1915	Turks and Discovery of America	7
25. Fite	1910	Wheat in Civil War diplomacy	7
26. Beard	1913	Economic interpretation of Constitution	5
27. Channing	1917	Closure of Mississippi	5
28. Golder	1915	Russian fleet in Civil War	2
29. Dennett	1922	Origin of Open Door Policy	0
30. Hughes	1923	Misinterpretations of the Monroe Doctrine	0
31. Stephenson	1925	French aid before Saratoga	0
32. Schlesinger	1922	Radicalism and conservatism	0
33. Perkins	1927	The Monroe Doctrine	0

after these long periods of delay the views were finally considered and accepted by some writers of secondary texts. In fairness to textbook writers it should be noted that occasionally a new view or interpretation was included in a text before it was published in the monograph or report used as the basis of the study being reported here. The number of years required for new views to become incorporated into secondary texts leads one to conclude that the information made available by historical scholars may have little or no influence upon the knowledge available in secondary texts of the same period.

I have considered the earlier texts here to show the practice of textbook writers over a considerable period. Inasmuch as the fifteen recent texts (1926-1930) are of special interest to secondary teachers, further comments will be confined to these fifteen texts. Table III presents the data concerning the incorporation of these new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries into the fifteen recent texts.³⁹ In Table III the new views are arranged according to the frequency of their incorporation into the fifteen texts. The data show that only five of the views are given in more than 75 per cent of the texts; on the other hand eighteen of the

new views are stated in less than 25 per cent of these recent texts. Table III also shows that the views given in more than 75 per cent of the texts were published before 1905 and that the views included in less than 25 per cent of the texts were published (with one exception) since 1910. Modern textbook writers are either very conservative or very indifferent toward the new views, emphases, and discoveries presented by historical scholars.

The treatment in the secondary texts of some of the topics, to which these new views, emphases, and discoveries relate, may be of interest. It is the purpose here to give some idea of the effect of the inclusion or exclusion of late research upon the uniformity of the information available to secondary students using different texts. The topics for special consideration are: the frontier in American history, the Loyalists in the Revolution, the withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico, geographic factors in American history, economic interpretation of the Constitution, the Russian fleet in the American Civil War, the capture of Constantinople and the discovery of America, and the cause of the Mexican War.

Frederick J. Turner in 1893 presented the interpretation of the frontier as a vital influence in the development of American life, character, and government.⁴⁰ The space devoted to the frontier and its influence varies from approximately 280 to 9820 words and from .1 to 4.5 per cent of the total pages of the book. Seven texts or approximately one-half of these recent texts devote more than 2300 words to this topic. This one hundred per cent inclusion of Turner's interpretation assumes special significance when one considers (1) that ten years elapsed after 1893 (Table II) before any of the texts in this study included this interpretation and (2) that a text published as late as 1916 failed to mention the influence of the frontier.⁴¹ This final acceptance and inclusion of Turner's thesis after a period of neglect indicates that we may reasonably expect the same thing to happen to recent new viewpoints in a similar period of time. The question in this connection is whether secondary students must wait until 1940 or later before finding in all secondary texts views expressed in 1930, e.g., Beale's view on radical reconstruction.⁴²

Claude H. Van Tyne's emphasis upon the rôle played by the Loyalists in the Revolution⁴³ has been included in each of these fifteen recent texts. The discussions vary in the space devoted to this topic although there is great uniformity in the treatment of the points emphasized by Van Tyne. The treatment of this topic is cited as being an example of a uniformity of treatment which should enable students using various texts to compete on

TABLE II
NUMBER OF YEARS BEFORE NEW VIEWS, EMPHASES, AND
DISCOVERIES APPEARED IN THE SECONDARY TEXTS
INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY

Author	Date	Viewpoint, emphasis, or discovery on	No. of Yrs.
1. Van Tyne	1902	Loyalists in the Revolution	1 ³⁸
2. Trevelyan	1898	Revolution and English reform	1
3. Smith	1919	Mexican War	1
4. Adams	1921	New England migration	1
5. Dennett	1922	Purpose of Open Door Policy	1
6. Channing	1925	Democracy issue and Civil War	1
7. Haring	1928	The Monroe Doctrine in South America	1
8. Semple	1903	Geographic factors	2
9. Owsley	1925	States' rights in the Civil War	2
10. Alvord	1917	The British Western policy	2
11. Bemis	1923	Jay's Treaty	2
12. Schlesinger	1922	States' rights	4
13. Channing	1917	Closure of the Mississippi	4
14. Pratt	1925	Expansionists in the War of 1812	4
15. Andrews and Osgood	1898	Relation of colonies to England and the British Empire	5
16. Tarbell	1906	Politics and the tariff	7
17. Becker	1915	The double Revolution	7
18. Channing	1917	Election of 1800	8
19. Lybyer	1915	Turks and discovery of America	9
20. Turner	1893	Significance of the frontier	10
21. Corwin	1916	The French Alliance of 1778	13
22. Beer	1893	Commercial policy of England	14
23. Golder	1915	Russian fleet in Civil War	14
24. Mahan	1903	Sea power in the War of 1812	14
25. Fite	1910	Wheat in Civil War diplomacy	15
26. Beard	1913	Economic interpretation of the Constitution	16
27. Duniway	1902	Withdrawal of French from Mexico	16

a basis of equality in college entrance and state examinations. "The Loyalists in the Revolution" is the only one of the thirty-two subjects (included in this study) which is treated with any degree of uniformity in these fifteen recent texts.

Clyde A. Duniway in 1902 presented his discovery showing that European conditions and not Seward's ultimatum of February 12, 1866 was responsible for the withdrawal of French troops from Mexico.⁴⁴ Only three texts or 15 per cent of these recent texts give Duniway's explanation, ten texts give the traditional view, i.e., that the French withdrew because of Seward's ultimatum, and two texts do not discuss the French in Mexico. The prevalence of this traditional interpretation of the episode appears unexplainable when it is noted that Duniway's explanation of the episode was given in a secondary text published in 1918,⁴⁵ that is, eight years before the publication of any of the fifteen recent texts considered here.

TABLE III
NEW VIEWPOINTS, EMPHASES, AND DISCOVERIES ARRANGED
ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF INCORPORATION
INTO FIFTEEN RECENT TEXTS (1926-1930)

Author	Date	View, Emphasis, or Discovery on	% of texts
1. Turner	1893	Significance of frontier	100
2. Beer	1893	Commercial policy of England	100
3. Van Tyne	1902	Loyalists in the Revolution	100
4. Andrews and Osgood	1898	Relation of colonies to England and the British Empire	100
5. Semple	1903	Geographic factors	93
6. Trevelyan	1898	The Revolution and English re- form	60
7. Adams	1921	New England migration	60
8. Haring	1928	The Monroe Doctrine	56
9. Mahan	1903	Sea power in the War of 1812	53
10. Tarbell	1906	Politics and the tariff	47
11. Schlesinger	1922	States' rights doctrine	47
12. Alvord	1917	British Western policy	40
13. Becker	1915	The double Revolution	33
14. Schlesinger	1917	Colonial merchants in the Revo- lution	33
15. Dennett	1922	Purpose of Open Door Policy	27
16. Smith	1919	The Mexican War	20
17. Corwin	1916	The French Alliance of 1778	20
18. Duniway	1902	The withdrawal of the French from Mexico	20
19. Beard	1913	Economic interpretation of Con- stitution	13
20. Lybyer	1915	Turks and the discovery of America	13
21. Channing	1917	Election of 1800	13
22. Bemis	1923	Jay's Treaty	13
23. Pratt	1925	Expansionists in the War of 1812	13
24. Channing	1925	Democracy issue in the Civil War	13
25. Owsley	1925	States' rights in the Civil War	7
26. Channing	1917	Closure of the Mississippi	7
27. Golder	1915	Russian fleet in the Civil War	7
28. Fite	1910	Wheat in the Civil War diplomacy	7
29. Dennett	1922	Origin of the Open Door Policy	0
30. Hughes	1923	Misinterpretations of the Mon- roe Doctrine	0
31. Stephenson	1925	French aid before Saratoga	0
32. Schlesinger	1922	Radicalism and conservatism	0
33. Perkins	1927	The Monroe Doctrine	0

What emphasis is given in these secondary texts to the influence of geographic factors in American history? Ellen C. Semple in 1903⁴⁶ presented clearly and forcibly this subject, thus assuring the textbook writers of a wealth of available material. Fourteen of these fifteen recent texts give some separate treatments of the influence of geographic factors on American history. The approximate number of words devoted to the influence of geographic factors shows the variation in emphasis on this subject. The fourteen texts give the following number of words to the topic: 140, 260, 300, 370, 400, 530, 648, 830, 1737, 1860, 3113, 3580, 3930, 4428. May one expect that students using these different texts will have similar information on the importance of geographic factors in American history?

The fifteen texts considered here were published more than ten years after C. A. Beard's *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*. The effect of this interpretation upon the treatment of the Constitution in these texts (1926-1930) has been to decrease a uniformity which was not great even in the texts published before 1913. These fifteen texts include three different treatments of the Constitution: (1) some texts give the economic interpretation presented in 1913 by Beard, (2) other texts give some economic factors, i.e., some give the economic conditions leading to the Convention, some show the economic phases of ratification, etc., and (3) other texts omit entirely any statement which might suggest any economic influence. When there is added to the above variations the emphasis by some writers upon the aristocratic features of the Constitution, the emphasis by others upon the English origin of the document, and the emphasis by others upon the opposition to a strong national government, it becomes evident that students will have very different conceptions of the Constitution and its framing. The extent of the influence of the economic interpretation may be shown by the fact that two of the fifteen texts give the economic interpretation, eleven of the texts discuss or mention one or more of the economic factors connected with the Constitution, and two of the texts give no trace of the economic interpretation or any economic factors. Is it a good policy for some secondary students to learn an economic interpretation of the Constitution while other students remain ignorant of the existence of such a theory?

The publication in 1915 of a discovery by F. A. Golder⁴⁷ showed that the Russian fleet came to American shores during the Civil War in order that the fleet should be in position to prey on British commerce if Russia should become involved in a war with England over the trouble then brew-

ing in Poland. This discovery made by Golder is used in only one of these fifteen recent texts. Twelve of these texts give no discussion of the Russian fleet in America and two of the texts in this period, 1926-1930, still give the traditional view, that is, that the Russian fleet was sent to show friendship to the United States. The students using texts of one group have a brief statement based on Golder's discovery, i.e., in conformity with latest research; the students of the second group have no knowledge of such a visit being made; and the students of the third group have the traditional explanation of the episode.

In 1915 A. H. Lybyer published his discovery of sources which he used to show that the exploration for new routes to India, which resulted in the discovery of the New World, was not caused by the Turks blocking the eastern trade routes.⁴⁸ Lybyer's discovery is stated in only two of these fifteen recent texts. Five of the texts give the traditional view of this topic, i.e., that the capture of Constantinople was an important cause of the explorations and of the discovery of America. Six of the texts treat the subject without making definite statements as to the effect of the Turks upon the discovery of America. These six texts mention the closing of trade routes by the Turks in connection with the discovery of America. They do not make definite statements that the capture of Constantinople was the cause of the discovery of America. However, this is implied in the statements concerning the interference of the Turks with the trade. Two of the texts omit all discussion of the discovery of America. In this case the texts give information which divides the students into four groups, each group having different knowledge on this subject.

Justin H. Smith in 1919 stated the view, supported by much evidence, that the Mexican War was forced upon the United States by the acts and threats of Mexico.⁴⁹ With this interpretation Smith added one more⁵⁰ to the already confusing theories concerning the cause of the Mexican War. Smith's view of the cause of the Mexican War is included in three of these fifteen recent texts. To some extent the authors of these three texts stress other factors not emphasized by Smith, although they give the essential phases of Smith's explanation; thus leaving the impression that Mexico, not the United States, was responsible for the war. The twelve texts which do not give Smith's view treat the war in various ways; some emphasize the war as the result of the slaveholders' desire for California and the Southwest, other texts omit the slavery theory and stress the war as "Polk's War," still other texts interpret the war as the result of the Texan boundary dispute and make no men-

tion of the desire for California, and finally some texts combine several of these explanations in varying proportions. These varied explanations are all found in only fifteen texts published 1926 to 1930!

To show the differences existing among these fifteen recent texts the number of these thirty-two new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries included in each text is given here. The texts are designated by number to avoid any personal discrimination. This information is given solely for the purpose of showing how much superior some texts are to others in this respect. It is this variation which points to the need of a comprehensive study which shall use the inclusion of late research as one of the criteria for judging the quality of secondary texts.

It was to be expected that no text would include all these views selected at random and it seems rather remarkable that the texts numbered VIII, IX, XI, XII, and XIII contained such a large percentage of the views. If the number of views selected as a basis for the study had been larger and the views more carefully selected by a consensus of a number of leading historians, the percentage of inclusion might have been higher and would admittedly have been a safer index to the quality of the texts. I repeat that the selection of views is principally my own.

In the beginning of this paper it was stated that the purpose of the paper was not to advocate the inclusion of these thirty-two new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries. This view is reiterated, for these thirty-two views, emphases, and discoveries serve only as concrete examples (chosen with some care by one individual) of material which should be included in secondary texts. The position taken here is that every secondary student has the right to expect to receive in his American history class the results, when established, of the latest research

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF THIRTY-TWO NEW VIEWPOINTS, EMPHASES, AND
DISCOVERIES INCLUDED IN FIFTEEN RECENT TEXTS

Text	Number of new views, emphases, and discoveries
I	11
II	10
III	8
IV	6
V	8
VI	6
VII	12
VIII	19
IX	16
X	9
XI	14
XII	15
XIII	14
XIV	6
XV	5

in American history. The time spent in secondary school is too valuable for the student to waste it in learning explanations and interpretations which have already been shown to be erroneous or at least to have been questioned by eminent scholars. In the case of controverted views and emphases some may contend that the secondary student should not be introduced to controversies which he is not mature enough to understand or judge. But on the other hand note the inadequate treatments in the various texts of the topics discussed in this paper to show the injustice of placing some students in the position of having no knowledge of late research.

It is not the purpose here to advocate that every textbook writer should accept every new theory. But when a new viewpoint, emphasis, or discovery has been presented through proper channels by an acknowledged scholar to American historians and has not been seriously disputed, it appears only reasonable to expect a textbook writer to mention, at least, the existence of such a view. The writer of a text who omits these new views, emphases, and discoveries because *he* does not agree with them places himself in a position of historical censor rather than in a position of purveyor of historical knowledge. Of course in the present chaotic state of history in the secondary course probably no one can set the topics to be discussed by the textbook writer; however, it does not appear unreasonable to expect him to mention the latest research in the discussions of the topics chosen by him.

Inasmuch as textbooks vary so much in the accounts given, it is essential that the teacher guard against becoming a slave to any one text. The secondary teacher needs to make an effort to have a number of texts available to a class. It will always be necessary for the teacher to supplement the text with the results of the most recent research. With the vast quantity of historical publications being produced in every field of history one can scarcely expect the average good teacher to keep abreast of recent developments by himself perusing that impossible mass of reading in several languages; but he can keep alertly in touch with his subject by following the various historical reviews and organs of organized scholarship in this country.

¹ The writer is indebted to Dr. S. F. Bemis of George Washington University, not only for suggesting the subject of this study, but also for his suggestions concerning many of the points of view to be included in the study and for his guidance during the study. This statement should not be construed as an approval by Dr. Bemis of any of these views or emphases.

² American Association of University Women, *Report of the Committee on United States History Textbooks, used in the Schools of the United States* (New Orleans, 1929),

pp. 1 ff. Amabel Redman, *Classified Catalogue of Textbooks in the Social Studies for Elementary and Secondary Schools* (Philadelphia, 1927).

³ As previously stated some of the views were suggested by Dr. S. F. Bemis. Arthur M. Schlesinger's *New Viewpoints in American History* (New York, 1926) was also used in making the selection.

⁴ Frederick J. Turner, "The Significance of the Frontier in American History," in *The American Historical Association Report*, 1893, pp. 197-227.

⁵ George Louis Beer, *The Commercial Policy of England toward the American Colonies* (New York, 1893), pp. 8 ff.

⁶ Charles M. Andrews, "American Colonial History, 1690-1750," in *The American Historical Association Annual Report*, 1898, pp. 49-60. Herbert L. Osgood, "The Study of American Colonial History," in *The American Historical Association Annual Report*, 1898, pp. 63-76.

⁷ George O. Trevelyan, *The American Revolution* (4 Vols., New York, 1905), I, pp. 226 ff.

⁸ Claude H. Van Tyne, *The Loyalists in the American Revolution* (New York, 1902), passim.

⁹ Clyde A. Duniway, "Reasons for the Withdrawal of the French from Mexico," in *The American Historical Association Report*, 1902, pp. 313-329.

¹⁰ A. T. Mahan, *Sea Power in Its Relation to the War of 1812* (2 Vols., Boston 1919), II, pp. 101 ff and p. 381 (Copyright 1903).

¹¹ Ellen C. Semple, *American History and Its Geographic Conditions* (New York, 1903), passim.

¹² Ida M. Tarbell, *The Tariff in Our Times* (New York, 1906), passim.

¹³ Emerson D. Fite, *Social and Industrial Conditions in the North during the Civil War* (New York, 1910), pp. 17 ff.

¹⁴ Charles A. Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (New York, 1913), p. 188.

¹⁵ F. A. Golder, "The Russian Fleet and the Civil War," in *The American Historical Review*, Vol. XX, pp. 801-814.

¹⁶ A. H. Lybyer, "The Ottoman Turks and the Routes of Oriental Trade," in *The English Historical Review*, Vol. XXX, pp. 577-588.

¹⁷ Carl L. Becker, *Beginnings of the American People* (New York, 1915), pp. 240 f.

¹⁸ Edward S. Corwin, *French Policy and the American Alliance of 1778* (Princeton, 1916), preface pp. v f. and p. 49.

¹⁹ Edward Channing, *A History of the United States* (6 Vols., New York, 1905-1925) IV, p. 312.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, IV, pp. 235 f.

²¹ Clarence W. Alvord, *The Mississippi Valley in British Politics* (2 Vols., Cleveland, 1917), pp. 250 f.

²² Arthur M. Schlesinger, *The Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution 1763-1776* (New York, 1917), passim.

²³ Justin H. Smith, *The War with Mexico* (2 Vols., New York, 1919), II, p. 514, note 21.

²⁴ J. T. Adams, *The Founding of New England* (Boston, 1921), p. x.

²⁵ Tyler Dennett, *Americans in Eastern Asia* (New York, 1922), p. 645.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 680.

²⁷ A. M. Schlesinger, *New Viewpoints in American History* (New York, 1926), p. 222.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 106 f.

²⁹ Samuel F. Bemis, *Jay's Treaty—A Study in Commerce and Diplomacy* (New York, 1923), p. 270.

³⁰ Charles Evans Hughes, "The Centenary of the Monroe Doctrine," in *International Conciliation Documents of the Year 1924*, No. 194, pp. 3-22. Charles Evans Hughes, "Observations on the Monroe Doctrine," in *The American Journal of International Law*, Vol. XVII, pp. 611-628.

³¹ Julius W. Pratt, *Expansionists of 1812* (New York, 1925), pp. 12 ff.

³² Orlando W. Stephenson, "The Supply of Gunpowder in 1776," in *The American Historical Review*, Vol. XXX, pp. 271-281.

³² Edward Channing, *A History of the United States*, VI, pp. 342 f.

³⁴ Frank L. Owsley, *State Rights in the Confederacy* (Chicago, 1925), pp. 1 ff.

³⁵ Dexter Perkins, *The Monroe Doctrine 1823-1826* (Cambridge, 1927), p. 248.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 161.

³⁷ Clarence H. Haring, *South America Looks at the United States* (New York, 1928), p. 102.

³⁸ One year means that a view published in 1902 was found in a text published in 1903; however, not all 1903 texts nor all texts published after 1903 contained the view.

³⁹ These fifteen recent texts are designated in this paper by number. The names of the texts are not given here because it is the view of the writer that a more comprehensive list of new viewpoints, emphases, and discoveries (selected by a committee of leading historians) should be used as a basis for a similar study before a final judgment as to the superiority of certain texts could be rendered. The names

of the texts which correspond to the numbers are in the hands of the editor.

⁴⁰ Turner, *op. cit.*, p. 199, p. 221.

⁴¹ D. H. Montgomery, *The Students' American History* (Boston, 1916).

⁴² Howard K. Beale, *The Critical Year, A Study of Andrew Johnson and Reconstruction* (New York, 1930), *passim*.

⁴³ Van Tyne, *op. cit.*, preface, viii, *passim*.

⁴⁴ Duniway, *op. cit.*, pp. 313-329.

⁴⁵ J. H. Latané, *A History of the United States* (Boston, 1918).

⁴⁶ Semple, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

⁴⁷ Golder, *op. cit.*, pp. 801-814.

⁴⁸ Lybyer, *op. cit.*, p. 583 note, and p. 587.

⁴⁹ Smith, *op. cit.*, II, p. 322, p. 514.

⁵⁰ This view of the war had appeared in a secondary history text in 1917, David S. Muzzey, *An American History* (Boston, 1917) p. 342, pp. 345-346, p. 347.

The Lame Duck Amendment

By FRANCES N. AHL
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The most outstanding act of the Seventy-second Congress, aside from the financial and relief measures, was the adoption of the famous "Lame Duck" amendment. Sponsored by Senator George W. Norris of Nebraska, this resolution provides for a constitutional amendment changing the date of the opening of Congress from the first Monday in December to January 4, and the inauguration of the President from March 4 to January 24.

The proposal passed the Senate 6 times during the last 10 years. But the House of Representatives on each occasion previous to the last Congress refused to take favorable action. It is true that during the Seventy-first Congress the lower chamber let a fake substitute for the Norris bill come to a vote. When this substitute measure passed the House and went to the conference committee, the Senate conferees refused to accept the House scheme as it provided a fixed date, May 4, for closing the short session of Congress. Since this was diametrically opposed to the essential part of the Norris proposal, there could be no compromise on this point.

However, on February 16, 1932, the House of Representatives adopted, by a vote of 335 to 56 a resolution almost identical with the Senate proposal. Minor differences were ironed out by a special committee composed of members from both houses. Thus after an almost constant congressional battle of 10 years' duration, the Norris resolution was finally adopted by Congress.

The "Lame Duck" amendment is now before the Legislatures of the 48 states for ratification. They will be given 7 years in which to act favorably upon the measure. Already 14 legislatures have ratified

it, and it appears almost certain that it will receive the approval of the necessary 36 states early in 1933 when nearly all the Legislatures meet.

The proposed amendment is to go into effect on the October 15 following ratification. Hence, if ratification is completed before October 15, 1933, the "Lame Duck" amendment will become effective on that date as the twentieth amendment to the Constitution.

Why should newly elected Congressmen convene the January following election instead of a year from the December following election? In other words, why should they convene 2 months after their victory at the polls instead of 13 months as is the practice under the present system?

Senator Norris, the father of the "Lame Duck" amendment says: "The only direct opportunity that the citizens of the country have to express their ideas and their wishes in regards to national legislation is the expression of their will through the election of their representatives at the general election in November. During the campaign that precedes this election the great questions demanding attention at the hands of the new Congress are discussed at length before the people and throughout the country, and it is fair to presume that the members of Congress chosen at that election fairly represent the ideas of a majority of the people as to what legislation is desirable. In a government by the people the wishes of a majority should be crystallized into legislation as soon as possible after those wishes have been made known."

As it is now the Congressmen elected in November, 1932, will not begin their work in legislation until December, 1933, unless the President should

call them into special session before that time. Since the term of office in the lower house is 2 years, it will nearly half expire before the representatives assume their duties.

Meanwhile, the short session of Congress convenes from the first Monday of December, 1932, until March 4, 1933. Those defeated in the November elections, the "Lame Duck" members as they are called, continue in office. But they have little consideration for the problems of the country. Some are subservient to the President in the hope that they will be appointed to desirable positions.

It is during the last days of the short sessions that nearly all the famous filibusters have taken place. As Senator Norris says: "It is known throughout the session that on the fourth of March, when the gavel falls everything on the calendar not enacted into law fails and dies. No filibuster can be successfully carried on unless the adjournment of Congress is definitely fixed.—The remedy therefore is to abolish the short session of Congress. It is important that those who have been defeated should not be continued in office after their defeat.—The ability of the President to control legislation through the lame-duck method would, therefore, disappear at once."

The Norris amendment would eliminate the lame ducks and the fixed date for the adjournment of the now so-called short session of Congress. It would permit this second session, which must now end before March 4, to continue indefinitely.

It is interesting to note that the United States is the only nation in the world to have "lame ducks." In all other countries, victorious candidates are placed in office a few weeks or a few months after election. In no other country do they have to wait 13 months before taking an active part in legislation. In most of the states of the United States, the legislatures convene in January, 2 months after election.

According to the Norris amendment the inauguration of the President would take place on January 24 instead of on March 4 as at present. This is 20 days after the opening of Congress on January 4, as provided for in the amendment. This interval would give Congress ample time in which to organize. Furthermore, if the electoral college failed to elect a President or a Vice-president the House of Representatives or the Senate would have time to make the choice as provided for in the twelfth amendment.

The "Lame Duck" amendment, now before the state legislatures for ratification, is one of the most far-reaching changes in government proposed in many years. If it becomes a part of our fundamental law, it will change the date of inauguration of the President, abolish the short session of Congress, eliminate filibustering, and give the people a more direct voice in the affairs of government by providing that Congressmen take up their duties 2 months after election instead of 13 months as under the present system.

Social Science Reference Books In Fifty-Eight Minnesota High School Libraries

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It is a truism that a good library is indispensable for the effective teaching of the social studies. Perhaps the principal function of the school library is to provide adequate reference books. Encyclopedias and dictionaries are first essentials, and standard works in the special fields are almost equally important. It is a matter of common observation that school libraries differ greatly in the quantity and quality of such reference books. Very few are so commonly demanded that they are to be found in as many as one half of the schools. This

report deals with the reference books relating to the social studies that can be found in representative high school libraries in the state of Minnesota.

In the spring of 1931 the senior author of this article visited 72 high schools in the state of Minnesota. Adequate data were secured on the libraries of 58 of these schools. These 58 schools, located in central and southern Minnesota outside of the Twin Cities and Duluth, are typical of the state and perhaps representative of similar areas throughout the United States. Two of the schools

were parochial institutions; the remainder were public. They range in size from three-teacher schools of less than fifty pupils to one high school with 74 teachers and an enrolment of nearly 1500. (The distribution of the schools according to size can be seen in Table II at the foot of the vertical columns.)

Although collection of data concerning social science reference books was only one of several objectives, nevertheless, each visit included a careful inspection of the school library and the books in the classrooms of social science teachers. Thus, some private copies of books were probably counted; but these would only compensate for the few library volumes that may have been missed due to their temporary removal from the library and reading room.

This investigation was concerned only with reference books, by which is meant (1) all general encyclopedias and those designed for the social studies, and (2) extensive sets of more than one volume dealing with some field of the social studies. (Bound volumes of periodicals were also noted and are dealt with separately in this report.) Aside from general reference works, the books found are almost exclusively historical, with American history predominating.

The titles of social science reference works most commonly found in the 58 Minnesota high school libraries visited are listed in Table I in order of frequency. The number of different schools in which each work was found is given in the first column at the right of the table; in the second is listed the total number of sets. Where there is a discrepancy between these two figures, it indicates that some school or schools possessed duplicate sets. This happened rather infrequently, however. Five high schools owned duplicate sets of the *World Book* and one had three sets. In one instance, ten sets of a three-volume historical work (Hart's *Epochs*) were found in one school library. (At the time of purchase the fourth volume, by Bassett, had not appeared.)

It will be noted that four of the most frequent five sets are standard encyclopedias, two being especially adapted to the interests of younger students. The *Encyclopedia Britannica* ranks eighth with 16 sets in 14 schools. Thus, it can be said that the *Britannica* is to be found in one fourth of the high schools, whereas the *Americana* (mostly older editions) appears in about half of them. Of the 16 sets of the *Britannica* found in 1931 only four were of the new (fourteenth) edition, indicating an easily explainable reluctance on the part of school administrators to invest heavily in books during the depression.

General encyclopedias accounted for 28 out of

the total of 131 different titles noted. Only eight of these, however, appeared in more than six schools. Some schools had to depend exclusively upon little-known compilations claiming to be "compendia of universal knowledge for school and home." In nearly all cases, however, a standard encyclopedia was the *sine qua non* of the school library.

The reference works more especially devoted to the social studies were, as was pointed out in an earlier generalization, almost all concerned with some aspect of history. Of these, the greater number were extended narratives of single or multiple authorship. The most common example of the former type was McMaster's *History of the People of the United States*, which was found in nearly half of the schools. Of the coöperative works, the *American Nation* series was noted most frequently. Other sets were less common; for example, the *American Statesmen* series and the *Chronicles of America* were observed in four and seven instances, respectively.

A few works dealing with social science topics in encyclopedic fashion were discovered, the *New Larned History for Ready Reference*, which is found in approximately one high school out of every four, and the *Cyclopedia of American Government* by Hart and McLaughlin being most frequent. Two schools are purchasing the new *Dictionary of American Biography* as the volumes appear; but, as yet, the new *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* has not found its way into Minnesota high schools.

Reprints of source material constitute a fourth type of reference work frequently found in school libraries. Nearly one-half of the schools visited owned sets of Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*. Richardson's *Messages and Papers of the Presidents* was the second most common set of this type. Few source books for history other than American were found.

It should be noted that the 27 titles listed in Table I represent only the most frequently possessed social science reference works, not necessarily the most used or the best. Many excellent volumes appear but rarely in high school libraries and some well-known sets (such as the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, mentioned above) were discovered in none of the 58 high schools visited. The reader will doubtless note many serious omissions from the list here presented. For reasons not ascertained in this investigation, several seemingly essentials books are not found in high school libraries in Minnesota. Others of slight value have too often been sold to gullible superintendents (the librarians protest their innocence) by persuasive book agents.

The authors found a total of 131 different so-

cial science reference books in the 58 high schools investigated. Of these, only 27 appeared with a frequency of greater than eight. The remaining 105 works are widely scattered among different high schools and widely divergent as to kind and quality. Nearly half (48) of them were noted only once; 31 others appeared with a frequency of two.

Frequencies for several well-known reference works not included in Table I are as follows: Henry Adams' *History of the United States* (1), *American Statesmen* series (4), C. M. Andrews' *Historical Development of Modern Europe* (6), M. P. Andrews' *History of the United States* (6), Lord's *Beacon Lights of History* (2), Beard's *Rise of American Civilization* (2), Beveridge's *Life of John Marshall* (1), Bryce's *American Commonwealth* (1) and *Holy Roman Empire* (2), Cambridge *Modern History* (2), Carpenter's *World Travels* (4), *Catholic Encyclopedia* (2), Channing's *History of the United States* (7), *Chronicles of America* (7), *Classroom Teacher* (6), *Cyclopedia of American Government* (6), *Dictionary of American Biography* (2), Folwell's *History of Minnesota* (5), Froude's *History of England* (2), Grant's *Personal Memoirs* (2), Green's *Short History of the English People* (2), Guizot's histories (7), Lodge's *History of the Nations* (2), Hume's *History of England* (7), Irving's *Life of Washington* (1), Mommsen's *History of Rome* (5), Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education* (2), *Old South Leaflets* (3), Plutarch's *Lives* (1), Rawlinson's *Seven Great Oriental Monarchies* (5), Parson's *Stream of History* (5), Thiers' *History of the French Revolution* (1), *Who's Who* (2), Wilson's *History of the American People* (2), Sanderson's *World's True History* (7).

Current periodicals were usually available in the school libraries visited, but systematic files of back numbers were infrequent. Only six high schools had bound volumes of social science periodicals. Four of these had the *National Geographic Magazine*. Bound volumes of the *Outlook*, *Literary Digest*, and *Review of Reviews* appeared on the shelves of three libraries. In all, ten varieties of periodicals were bound, although the total number of sets noted was only 21. All six schools having bound magazines were above the median in size.

High school libraries are not prompt in acquiring newly published books. Their reference shelves are filled largely by volumes written and published before the World War. This fact, however, is by no means wholly to their discredit; for, certainly, some of the best works (in history especially) are relatively old. Many of the out-of-date books that have unfortunately survived were probably not worth purchasing in the first place. But this does not detract from the value and present usefulness

TABLE I
SOCIAL SCIENCE REFERENCE BOOKS MOST FREQUENTLY
FOUND IN MINNESOTA HIGH SCHOOLS

In an inspection of 58 Minnesota high school libraries, the following titles were found with frequencies indicated in the right-hand columns. Because of the variety of different editions in which each set appeared, no publication dates can be given.

	Number of Number schools of sets	
1. <i>World Book</i> , 13 vols. Chicago: Quarrie.	39	46
2. <i>New International Encyclopedia</i> , 23 vols. and annual supplements. New York: Dodd.	30	30
3. <i>Encyclopedia Americana</i> , 30 vols. New York and Chicago: Americana Corporation.	29	30
4. Hart, Albert B., ed., <i>American History Told by Contemporaries</i> , 4 or 5 vols. New York and London: Macmillan.	25	30
5. <i>Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia</i> , 10 vols. Chicago: Compton.	26	29
6. McMaster, J. B. <i>History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War</i> , 8 vols. New York: Ap- pleton.	27	27
7. Prescott, W. H. <i>Conquest of Mexico, Con- quest of Peru, or Ferdinand and Isa- bella</i> . Various editions and publishers.	16	18
8. <i>Encyclopedia Britannica</i> , 13th ed., 32 vols.; 14th ed., 24 vols. New York: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.	14	16
9. Hart, Albert B. <i>Epochs of American His- tory</i> , 3 or 4 vols. New York: Longman's.	5	16
10. Fiske, John. <i>Historical Works</i> , 12 vols. Bos- ton: Houghton.	15	15
11. Larned, J. N. <i>New Larned History for Ready Reference</i> , 12 vols. Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols.	14	15
12. Gibbon, Edward. <i>Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire</i> , 7 vols. London and New York: Macmillan.	14	15
13. Schouler, James. <i>History of the United States under the Constitution</i> , 7 vols. New York: Dodd.	13	15
14. Rhodes, James F. <i>History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850</i> , 8 vols. New York: Macmillan.	13	13
15. <i>Nelson's Perpetual Looseleaf Encyclopedia</i> , 13 vols. New York: Thomas Nelson and Co.	13	13
16. Hart, Albert B., ed., <i>The American Na- tion</i> , 27 or 28 vols. New York: Harper.	13	13
17. <i>National Encyclopedia for Home, School, and Library</i> , 10 vols. Chicago: National Encyclopedia Co.	12	13
18. Gabriel, R. H., ed., <i>Pageant of America</i> , 15 vols. New Haven: Yale University Press.	12	12
19. Parkman, Francis. <i>Historical Works</i> , 12 or 13 vols. Boston: Little.	12	12
20. McCarthy, Justin. <i>History of Our Own Times</i> , 2, 3, or 5 vols. New York: Harper.	12	12
21. <i>Book of Knowledge</i> , 20 vols. New York: Grolier.	11	11
22. Macaulay, Thomas B. <i>History of England</i> , 6 vols. London and New York: Mac- millan.	11	11
23. Richardson, James D. <i>Messages and Papers of the Presidents</i> , 10 vols. Washington, D.C., Spafford.	10	11
24. Motley, John L. <i>Rise of the Dutch Repub- lic</i> , 3 vols. New York: Harper.	10	10
25. Bancroft, George. <i>History of the United States</i> , 6 vols. New York: Appleton.	10	10
26. Roosevelt, Theodore. <i>Winning of the West</i> , 6 vols. New York: Putnam.	10	10
27. Stoddard, John L. <i>John L. Stoddard's Lec- tures</i> , 15 vols. Boston: G. L. Shuman and Co.	9	9

of such nineteenth century works as Henry Adams' *History of the United States*, Hart's *Contemporaries*, and the history of Macaulay, Motley, and Prescott, as well as the classics of Plutarch, Froude, and Gibbon.

Clearly, the significance which should be attached to the date of publication of a book varies with other factors such as its authorship, scope, and specific content. It is probable that a history of the Middle Ages published in 1890 would be relatively more valuable, other things being equal, than a book on ancient history published in the same year. High school teachers, in general, do not recognize this and are wont to lay undue stress upon recency of publication without a critical consideration of other factors. As a consequence of this "date mania" many good, old books are scorned by teachers, who consequently fail to take advantage of valuable available materials and fret about the recent books that their library lacks. One teacher was about to throw away a set of Mommsen's *History of Rome* because it was too old!

Nevertheless, the lack of some of the recent social science reference works, particularly in the smaller schools, is an outstanding defect which makes the failure to utilize what is available all the more serious. The relative infrequency of such sets as the *Dictionary of American Biography*, the *Chronicles of America*, Beard's *Rise of American Civilization*, and the latest editions of the *Americana* and *Britannica* has already been mentioned.

As a rule, the library sets of general reference works (encyclopedias, etc.) bore later publication dates than did those classed as being specifically concerned with social science. The median date for the former was 1922 as compared with 1906 for the latter. Out of 31 of the former for which dates were obtainable, nineteen appeared in editions later

than 1920, although doubtless much of the content had been written earlier. Of the latter, only 18 out of 67 with known dates came out since 1920.

The number of social science reference books per school varies with the size of the library, and less closely, with the size of the school. Table II illustrates the relationship between number of sets per school and size of school enrolment. A slight positive correlation is apparent. The summary column at the right of the table gives the distribution of the numbers of social science references works for all the 58 schools. Each of three schools has a total of 30, whereas one school has only two, and five schools have three each. The median for all schools is 11.67.

Having discussed thus far one aspect of the contents of Minnesota high school libraries, it remains to say a word about the individuals who use them, as observed in the visits to 58 schools. The librarians were tremendously interested in their libraries. Some of them had the good sense to be ashamed of their collections; others took just pride. Recognizing the need for more and better books, they were eager to have recommended to them useful reference works which they lacked, and intimated their desire and intention of ordering such sets—if only their requisitions would receive administrative sanction. Some librarians spoke of the interest of their superintendents in the libraries, but others complained that unwise purchases were frequently made without their consent or approval.

Pupils are reasonably sure of getting help from the librarians in locating material, but the latter complain that they do not receive sufficient funds for book purchases, on the one hand, and that, on the other, they receive but meager coöperation from the teachers in utilizing the facilities that they do have. Social science teachers are obviously guilty

TABLE II
NUMBER OF SOCIAL SCIENCE REFERENCE BOOKS PER SCHOOL AS RELATED TO SIZE OF SCHOOL

The following table gives the number of social science reference books per school for schools of various sizes and a distribution for all the 58 schools investigated. The class intervals at the left of the table refer to the number of social science reference books per school. The headings of the vertical columns indicate the size of schools in enrollment. The median number of reference books for high schools of each size is given at the bottom of the table.

	Under 100	100-199	200-299	300-399	400-499	500-999	1000-1499	Total
30-32				1	1	1		3
27-29		1						1
24-26								0
21-23			1	1		1		3
18-20			2			2		4
15-17			1	1	2	1	2	7
12-14	2	2	2	1		2	1	10
9-11	4	3	1	1				9
6-8	2	4	1		2	1		10
3-5	7	2	1					10
0-2	1							1
Total	16	12	9	5	5	8	3	58
Median	6	9	14.25	16.5	15.75	18	15.75	11.67

of ignorance as to the contents of their school libraries and the possibilities of using them in their instruction. That they have erroneous and hazy conceptions as to the criteria by which to judge good reference books was indicated above in regard to their "date mania." Other factors, even more irrelevant, such as binding, typography, or title, also seem to affect unduly teacher attitudes toward library books. Moreover, it was frequently observed that some teachers simply lack the scholarship necessary to appreciate good books. One of them remarked that she didn't think Gibbon was worth reading now days.

In conclusion, we may say, on the basis of the data here presented, that a teacher going into a typical high school in Minnesota (and the generali-

zations will probably apply to many other states) to teach the social studies will find

- (1) his colleagues insufficiently aware of the contents of the school library at their disposal,
- (2) a librarian with some specialized training and a real interest in her work,
- (3) a library of considerable possibilities, but several inadequacies,
- (4) a library containing at least two good general encyclopedias of recent date, one specialized encyclopedia, and seven or eight sets of social science reference books, varying considerably in kind and quality, with 1906 as the median date of publication.

The One-Year Course in World History

By ARTHUR DILLMAN GRAY

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HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE ONE-YEAR COURSE

The present one-year course in World History had its origin in the General History courses which appeared in the first organized high schools of the United States. When the English Classical High School was established in Boston in 1821 one of the courses offered was "Ancient and Modern History and Chronology" in the second year, using Tytler's *Elements of General History* as a text. The course appears in many high school curriculums of the New England and other Eastern states published between 1821 and 1913.¹

The General History course also found its way into the high schools of the North Central area. It was studied in the Defiance, Ohio, High School in 1853 and in Chicago in 1856. Stout's study of the curriculums of high schools of the North Central states showed that General History was an important subject in the schools of that area between 1869 and 1900.²

The General History course persisted until the latter part of the nineteenth century, when it began to meet with considerable opposition from educators and historians. The Committee of Ten in 1894 condemned the course,³ and the Committee of Seven four years later repeated the condemnation.⁴ As a result the course declined in importance, although it never did die out entirely.

About 1920 a one year course in history began to reappear in the high schools of the country, often under the title, "General History," but more often with a new title, "World History." In 1916

the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, while specifically recommending a two year course in European History, reported favorably upon a year's course to be known as "A Study of Nations."⁵ The American Sociological Society tentatively recommended a one year World History course in 1920,⁶ and a group of high school principals recommended the course in 1922.⁷

STATUS OF THE COURSE

Surveys of the fields of the social sciences covering the whole country, various sections of the country, and several individual states show rather definitely that the one year course in World History is now firmly established in the high schools. In 1924 the report of the *History Inquiry* showed that 13.6 per cent of 2404 schools were offering a one year course in World History. This report was criticized as under-estimating the number of schools which offered the course.⁸ In 1926 one investigation showed that twenty-one states offered World History, as revealed by state courses of study.⁹ In the same year another investigation, addressed to heads of State Departments of Education, showed that twenty-eight states offered the course.¹⁰ A survey of state and city courses of study by the writer, made in the latter part of 1931, showed that thirty-five states and two territories offered the course, and that eighty-six, or 36.2 per cent of 237 cities in all sections of the country offered courses in World History.¹¹

A survey of the schools of the North Central Association in 1930 showed that 1137, or 51.1 per cent of the 2226 schools of the Association offered courses in World History.¹² In a sampling of forty schools in 1915-16 no school reported a one year course in General or World History.¹³ In 1922 thirty-nine schools in a list of 475 reported a one year course in General History.¹⁴

Investigation of the status of the social sciences have been made in at least eight states, as follows: Kansas, in 1922,¹⁵ 1927,¹⁶ and 1928;¹⁷ Southern California in 1922;¹⁸ New York¹⁹ and Colorado²⁰ in 1923; Iowa, in 1924²¹ and 1929;²² Florida²³ and Washington²⁴ in 1926; and Mississippi²⁵ in 1927. The course in World History was found to be increasingly popular in Kansas and Iowa. It was also popular in Washington. It was offered to some extent in Florida and Colorado. The course was offered in very few schools in Mississippi, New York, and Southern California.

These investigations and the writer's study show that the course is more popular in certain sections of the country than in others. It is offered in each of the Western state courses of study, and in fifty per cent of the city courses surveyed in that section. It is offered in three-fourths of the North Central states, and in fifty per cent of the city courses examined. Although three-fourths of the Southern states offer the course, it does not appear to be popular in Southern cities, as only four of the twenty-three courses examined offer it. Two-thirds of the Middle states offer the subject in their state courses of study, but it is offered by only nine of the forty-six cities the courses of which were examined. In the New England states only one-third of the states offer the course, and only fifteen per cent of the city courses examined offer it, while the New England survey showed that little emphasis is placed upon World History.²⁶

The name, "World History," is becoming the commonly accepted title of the one year course. Twenty-two state courses and sixty-eight city courses give it that title. Five states and twelve cities give it the older title, "General History." Ten states and seven cities designate the course by some other title, such as "History of Civilization," "General European History," etc.

The one year course seems to be definitely allocated to the tenth grade, and in most cases is an elective subject. It is elected by a large per cent of the students. The tendency in most schools is to open the course to those pupils who do not wish to take two years of history other than United States History, and to close the two year courses in European History to pupils who have taken the one year course.

CONTENT OF THE COURSE

The content of the course appears to be in a chaotic condition. Practically no agreement exists among states and cities as to the objectives of the course. Fifty objectives of World History were found in the 124 courses of study surveyed, only twelve of which were found more than once. The appreciation of the contributions of the past was set up as an objective in nine courses, and the understanding of the problems of the present through a knowledge of the past was set up nine times. Cultivation of the power of judgment was given in four courses. Three set up a leisure time objective, and three gave as an objective the understanding of the concept of orderly development. Two courses set up an acquisition of knowledge objective, two list as an objective the desire to further study American History, and two to give a picture of modern civilization. Two set up a truth-seeking objective, two seek to give a review of historical background, and two to trace the decline of autocracy and the rise of democracy. Many of the objectives are similar to others in purpose, and several are skill-forming objectives.

The subject matter has been organized with little effort toward coördination and relative importance of the different phases of the subject. In twenty-two courses, eleven state and eleven city, a definite outline of the material to be covered was given. The number of divisions of the subject matter ranged from thirty-one in one state course to six in a city course. In twelve courses the major divisions were called "topics" or the outline was set up without naming the divisions. Five courses called their divisions "units." One course named its divisions "problems," while two used the name, "divisions." Two courses called their divisions "epochs," suggested by the term used in the adopted text.²⁷

TEXTBOOKS AND WORKBOOKS

Of the twelve or more World History textbooks on the market, ten have either been adopted or recommended in one or more of the 124 courses of study. Elson's *Modern Times and the Living Past*, Webster's *World History*, and West's *World Progress* are among the leaders in these recommendations or adoptions. In the sectional and state surveys Elson's text and Robinson, Breasted and Smith's *General History of Europe* were found to be the leading texts. Others in use are Barnard and Roorbach, *Epochs of World Progress*; Robinson, Breasted and Smith, *Our World Today and Yesterday*; Perkins, *A History of European Peoples*; Botsford, *A Brief History of the World*; Webster, *History of Mankind*; and Myers, *General History*.

The textbooks in use at present have changed

the emphasis of treatment from that of the older General History textbooks in use before 1920 to some extent, but not to the extent desired by proponents of the course. World History texts give major attention to war and politics, just as did the older General History textbooks.²⁸ Subject matter of the present-day texts is presented differently from those of a half-century and of a quarter-century ago. Present-day texts give less attention to detail, and more to explanation and to cause and effect.²⁹ The texts of 1900 to 1910 gave greater attention to the ancient and medieval periods, while in the texts of 1920 to 1930 the emphasis has been shifted to the modern period.

Eight or more World History workbooks are published at the present time. The earlier workbooks, published prior to 1926, are merely outlines of the course with a series of outline maps with some instruction for the completion of the maps. The workbooks published since 1926 have kept the outline map feature, but the major emphasis is no longer on map making. The guidance outline has been retained, but in the more recent workbooks the outline topics are followed by blanks wherein the pupil may write the main points of information concerning the topic. Besides the maps and the outline, the more important features of workbooks are lists of references, projects and problems for enrichment of the course, and objective tests. Three of the more recent workbooks provide three contracts of progressive degrees of difficulty to care for individual differences among the students.

CONCLUSIONS

There can be little doubt that the one year World History course has found a definite place in the program of the high school. It is now firmly established, and the indications are that it will continue to grow in popularity.

What seems to be needed at the present time is a determination of the aims of World History; the organization or re-organization of the subject matter; and the determination of emphasis upon the content of the course.

¹ A. J. Inglis. *Rise of the High Schools in Massachusetts*, p. 138.

² J. E. Stout. *The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States from 1869 to 1918*, p. 59.

³ *Report of the Committee on Ten on Secondary School Studies, with the Reports of the Conference Arranged by the Committee*, p. 174.

⁴ *The Study of History in Schools*, pp. 44-46.

⁵ *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, p. 34.

⁶ *School Review*, XXXVIII, 260.

⁷ *Teachers' College Record*, XXIII, 141.

⁸ Edgar Dawson. *The History Inquiry*, p. 32.

⁹ Milton Wright Brown. "An Analysis of State Courses of Study for the Social Studies," p. 91. Unpublished thesis, University of Chicago.

¹⁰ *Educational Review*, LXXI, 362-65.

¹¹ "World History in the Senior High School." Unpublished thesis, University of Chicago.

¹² *North Central Association Quarterly*, V, 104.

¹³ Stout, *op. cit.*, p. 217.

¹⁴ W. S. Monroe and I. O. Foster. *The Status of the Social Studies in the High Schools of the North Central Association*, pp. 31-32.

¹⁵ Lora Taylor. "The Development and Status of the History Curriculum in the United States with Special Reference to Kansas," pp. 67-70. Unpublished thesis, University of Kansas.

¹⁶ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVIII, 22-28.

¹⁷ Ethel Smiley Crowell, "Status of Social Science in Kansas High Schools," pp. 17-18. Unpublished thesis, University of Kansas.

¹⁸ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 269-75.

¹⁹ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 362.

²⁰ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 370-71.

²¹ R. C. Hurd. "Status of Social Studies in the High Schools of Iowa," pp. 6-11; 65. Unpublished thesis, State University of Iowa.

²² Byron Leslie Braman. "Trends in the Social Science Programs of Iowa High Schools," pp. 1-19. Unpublished thesis, State University of Iowa.

²³ Rudolph Henry Schild. "Status of the Social Studies in the Accredited High Schools of Florida," pp. 18-41. Unpublished thesis, University of Florida.

²⁴ Ward Simon Bowman. "A Survey of the Teaching of the Social Studies in the High Schools of the State of Washington," pp. 66-67. Unpublished thesis, University of Washington.

²⁵ T. A. Turner. "A Study of the Social Science Curricula for Mississippi High Schools," pp. 40-41. Unpublished thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers.

²⁶ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 365-66; XV, 407-408; XVI, 165.

²⁷ For an adequate discussion on "units" or "divisions" in the one-year course in World History see R. M. Tryon, "One-Year Course in World History for the High Schools," *School Review*, XXX, 467-74.

²⁸ Ethel Taylor. "The Changing Content and Emphasis in World History Textbooks between 1900 and 1926," p. 126. Unpublished thesis, University of Southern California.

²⁹ Ann Harder. "Trends in the Teaching of World History in the Secondary Schools," p. 66. Unpublished thesis, University of Southern California.

Notes on Periodical Literature

By GERTRUDE R. B. RICHARDS, PH.D.

William C. White, writing in the September *North American Review*, considers that the depression has added to Soviet problems many of the same difficulties found in other lands although "with a programme of economy of foreign reserves at home and with shrinking markets abroad the Soviet industrialization scheme can be slowed up. . . . Soviet Russia today is in a position to manufacture many of the things which had to be purchased from abroad three years ago" and "The Soviet Union has learned that capitalism and communism existing side by side, can suffer from the ills of the other."

In the July number of the *National Review*, Lt.-Col. W. H. H. Johnstons, commander of the 18th Division of the 11th Battalion of Royal Fusiliers of the 54th Brigade, tells of the fighting on the Somme, July 1st, 1916, and the successful effort of the only brigade to reach and hold its final objective on that fatal day.

The Attitude of the United States Toward the League of Nations

By PROFESSOR HENRY NOBLE SHERWOOD
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On October 15, 1931, The League of Nations invited the United States to send a delegate to sit at the Council table and there participate in the discussions on the Manchurian crisis. The invitation was accepted the following day. "I am invited," wrote our Consul in Geneva, Prentiss B. Gilbert, "by the Secretary of State to accept on behalf of the government of the United States this invitation to send a representative and to inform you that he has designated me to act in that capacity."

While it is true that Mr. Gilbert was to participate in the discussion only when it related to possible obligations of the Briand-Kellogg Pact, nevertheless his presence at the Council table was a unique event in the annals of our post-war foreign policy. It is true that we accepted membership on the Preparatory Disarmament Committee of the League and played an active part in the sessions of the Disarmament Conference. Indeed our Secretary of State, Henry L. Stimson, as a member of the American delegation to the Conference, was in Geneva a short time during the Conference, but the official participation by an American in the private meetings of the Council and in its subcommittees marks an epoch in our international relations. This new position is clearly seen when it is considered in the evolution of our attitude toward the League.

SPIRIT OF ALOOFNESS

The League of Nations was written into international law when the Treaty of Versailles was signed in June, 1919. During the following year it became a working concern with forty-two members. Since that time the membership has been increased to fifty-eight. Costa Rica and Brazil have withdrawn their membership. The most important states that never joined the League are Egypt, Russia, and the United States.

During the presidential campaign of 1920 Herbert Hoover with thirty others signed a declaration urging the American voters to support the Republican ticket as the best means of getting into the League. Although the Republican ticket was elected, its leader, Warren G. Harding, at the beginning of his administration, declared that "in the existing League of Nations, world-governing with its super-powers, this Republic will have no part." The voice by President Harding was echoed by

George Harvey, our ambassador at the Court of St. James. "Our present government," he said, "could not without betrayal of its creators and masters, and will not, I can assure you, have anything whatsoever to do with the League, or with any commission or committee appointed by it or responsible to it, directly or indirectly."

A story, told by a recognized historical writer, well illustrates the degree of aloofness which American officials held toward the League at the beginning of its history. One of our foreign ministers, while in Geneva, in a conversation with an American official of the Secretariat, learned that this official had in his office a document which he wished to see. "How can I get it?" he asked. "Come into my office and read it," was the answer. "But I cannot do that," he replied, "Someone will see me and my action will be misunderstood." The American minister waited on the sidewalk while the friend went for the manuscript, and having received it, continued to stand there while reading it. In the manuscript he found reference to another one which he wished to read. It also was brought to him. America was so determined to avoid entangling herself with the League of Nations that a foreign minister refused to enter the office of the Secretariat.

The same spirit of aloofness was shown by the State Department. Charles Evans Hughes, now Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, was then Secretary of State. Although known to be personally friendly to the League, officially, he ignored communications from it. Our Consul in Geneva called at the office of the League to say "verbally and unofficially" that "inasmuch as the American Government has no relations with the League of Nations there will be no reply" to its communications. This policy did not meet with public approval. In fact it was disadvantageous to the welfare of our own interests. Accordingly, answers were sent to the letters of the League. In September, 1921, one envelop contained fourteen notes from the State Department. The American policy of ignoring communications from the League of Nations lasted a little more than one year.

UNOFFICIAL REPRESENTATION

The next step in the evolution of American policy toward the League is found when delegates were

sent to sit in an unofficial capacity in its conferences and committees. In August, 1922, the United States was asked by the League to appoint a representative on its Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children. "In view of our rejection of the League," said President Harding, "I do not think it would be consistent to undertake participation on such an Advisory Committee, but I do recognize the very genuine American interest in the problem of suppressing traffic in women and children, and I would be glad to approve of arrangements under which we might have unofficial representation in the conferences which are to be held. If this may be worked out satisfactorily I shall be glad to sanction appropriate appointments." Accordingly Miss Grace Abbott of the Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, was appointed "to coöperate in an unofficial and consultative capacity." Within a few weeks an "unofficial observer" was appointed to the Anthrax Committee and another to the Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Opium.

As soon as the ice was broken still other appointments were made. Representatives were sent to the Transit Conference, the Customs Formalities Conference, the Obscene Publications Conference, and to many others. In fact our Government has participated in about ninety League conferences since 1920. So satisfactory to the Republican Party has been this relationship that in its 1928 platform it endorsed our "coöperation in the humanitarian and technical work" at Geneva.

Participation in League committees and conferences during the first eight years of its history cost the United States less than \$25,000. When this sum is compared with the League expenses of member states for the same period of time it is strikingly small. Large states, such as Great Britain, paid in round numbers \$4,000,000; small states, such as Haiti, about \$100,000. "The stationery and printing of the British Admiralty," says Sir Herbert Ames, "costs annually more than the British Empire contribution toward the support of the League." [British expense for 1930-31 stationery and printing 200,000 pounds; for the League, 120,000 pounds.] In this connection it is not amiss to point out that the annual expenditure upon armaments by all the governments of the world would meet the entire upkeep of the League of Nations for seven hundred fifty-eight years.

OFFICIAL DELEGATIONS

From the refusal to answer the communications of the League and from unofficial representation on its committees and in its conferences, the United States passed to a third step in the evolution of its League policy. This step is the sending of of-

ficial delegates to participate in League activities. Of the few times this step has been taken, an example is our membership in the disarmament conference.

With the consideration of these three attitudes it seems clear that the United States does not wish to commit itself in advance on matters of foreign policy. In his last Armistice Day address President Hoover gave expression to this idea. "We believe," he said, "that our contribution can best be made in these emergencies, when nations fail to keep their undertakings of pacific settlements of disputes, by our good offices and helpfulness free from any advance commitment or entanglement as to the character of our action." We are not interested in the formation of an international fire department. When the fire breaks out we will devise a technique for putting it out.

In spite of our growing friendliness toward the League we have not as yet registered our treaties with it. The non-member states were early invited by the League to register their treaties. Germany accepted this invitation in 1920. Two thousand three hundred seventy-four treaties and agreements, filling one hundred three volumes, constitute the League of Nations Treaty Series. Sixty professors of international law in American Universities have petitioned our Secretary of State to cause our international conventions and treaties to be registered. We transmit our treaties to the Secretariat for publication. They are not registered, however, but given a special numbering.

In defining the attitude of the United States toward the League an important consideration, although not a part of the activity of our government, is the work of individual citizens performed in purely private capacities. It would be impossible to give a complete list, but mention should be made of Elihu Root who served on the Committee of Jurists on the Creation of the World Court, and of George Wickersham who served on the Committee on the Codification of International Law. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., has given \$2,000,000 for the construction and endowment of the Secretariat Library. American philanthropy is also seen in a gift of \$75,000 from the Social Hygiene Bureau for use in the White Slave Inquiry; a gift of \$15,000 from the American Society of International Law to support the Treaty series; \$10,000 for Albanian relief from friends in New York; \$30,000 from the American Red Cross and the Near East Relief to aid refugees in Constantinople; and gifts from the Rockefeller Foundation of \$500,000 for the Health Work of the League. By September, 1931, from private American sources about \$5,000,000 had been paid or pledged for the work of the League of Nations.

Thus the United States, without arousing organized opposition in the isolationist camp, has departed from its attitude of aloofness toward the League of Nations. As early as 1924 the Republican platform described our foreign policy as "coöperation without entangling alliances." Apparently our government has found out that we can not live in the world without being a part of it. Today fifty-six states hold periodic conferences in Geneva on matters that transcend national boundary lines. This practice is a technique of over ten years' standing. Gradually the United States has acknowledged an obligation to share in the responsibility for the initiation and guidance of the work done by the League in Geneva.

At first we refused to come near this international body; then we ventured into the group but kept silent; now we sit and participate in their meetings. Close students of American foreign

policy believe that our own welfare demands a more definite and frank statement and program. For our own good, they say, we must participate, not only in humanitarian and health work and in the economic and financial matters of the world but also in its political matters as well.

The present position of the United States in relation to The League of Nations was recently stated by William R. Castle, Under Secretary of State. "I see no reason," he said on January 4, 1932, "for being afraid of The League, no valid reason against coöperating with The League whenever it seems to our benefit to do so, or when it seems that by so doing, we shall, without weakening our own independent position, be of larger use to the world. This limited coöperation has been our custom for years. It has worked well. It has in no way involved the United States with The League and it will be continued."

History Instruction in the Elementary Schools and Teacher Training Institutes of Norway

By EINAR BOYESEN

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A. SURVEY

In any investigation of the school situation of a country for the benefit of foreigners, it is necessary to point out certain aspects which are especially characteristic of the country in question. In Norway the idea of an organic connection between the elementary school and the higher schools can be traced back step by step to the year 1830. The

growth of this idea was, in fact, responsible for one of the main trends in all proposals concerning school organization throughout the last century. When, in 1896, however, such a connection (between elementary and higher schools) became a reality, the development in our country did not stop at that point. Principally for social reasons, it was demanded that the full elementary course alone should serve as the fundamental school for the whole nation and should be held intact against all attempts to change to other types of schools. Since 1920¹ all public higher schools or those subsidized from public funds, such as the three year middle school, are, therefore, based on the seven year elementary school. Only a few four year middle schools, which are a continuation of the first five years of elementary school, are still in existence in those communities where the opinion prevails that the perpetuation of this school type is of special value. The Gymnasium is a three year course.

It is true that for these reasons the period of training up to the Matriculation Examination for the university has been prolonged by one year (7 plus 3 plus 3, as compared to 5 plus 4 plus 3), to

Editor's Note.—This is the sixteenth installment of the reports of the Commission on History Teaching appointed by the International Committee of Historical Sciences. The Commission is composed of the following: Professor Gustave Glotz (France), Chairman; Dr. Otto Brandt (Germany), Secretary and Reporter; Don Rafael Altamira (Spain), Professor Edv. Bull (Norway), Senator C. Calisse (Italy), Dr. W. Carlgren (Sweden), Count Alfonso Celso (Brazil), Professor A. Domanovsky (Hungary), His Excellency Augustin Edwards (Chile), Professor M. Handelsman (Poland), Professor Frans van Kalken (Belgium), Professor A. C. Krey (United States of America), Professor C. Marinescu (Rumania), Dr. H. Nabholz (Switzerland), Mme. Marie Nielson (Denmark), Dr. M. Pokrovsky (U.S.S.R.), Dr. J. Susta (Czechoslovakia), Professor Tenhaeff (Netherlands).

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which objection is taken for several reasons. Consequently, a general reform of the entire system of education has been attempted: a commission has submitted a plan according to which the problem of the Common School, of uniform schooling for all children, would be solved by a course of training covering, up to the Matriculation Examination, a period of twelve years. In this paper, we shall concern ourselves exclusively with the existing organization.

What uniformity has been achieved, is limited, as far as elementary education is concerned, to the purely external aspects of organization, as wide differences exist between individual schools in regard to school hours, organization of work, curriculum and content of instruction. A glance at the map of Norway will be sufficient to convince the foreigner of the difference in living conditions in our country which is so great that the conditions under which the work of our schools is done must also be of extraordinary variety. The difference is great whether we compare city and country, or the southernmost part of Norway with Nordland and Finnmarken or the narrow fjord districts of Westland with the spreading agricultural sections of Ostland and Trondelagen, or if we compare the elementary schools of the capital and of the larger cities on the one hand, with those of the small and smallest towns on the other. Even within individual school districts of the country, considerable differences may exist between the best conducted elementary schools in a comparatively closely settled parish and the humblest little schoolroom in a poor isolated section or side valley, where the children must walk to school laboriously and over roads which are long, and at times dangerous, to receive the instruction prescribed by law. Consequently, the law had to leave much leeway in regard to the school regulations of each individual community. It could establish only the minimum standard which is required by the state, and, in addition to this, create a foundation as flexible as possible for the further development of the elementary schools, to which, with the financial aid of the state, the individual communities are entitled.

The above definition of the organization of Norway's unified educational system was necessary to make clear the fact that the Norwegian public elementary school is, in the widest sense of the word, a school for all the people and to show how it forms throughout the whole period which it covers, that is to say, during the entire seven year course, the basis for all further training, theoretical as well as practical. Thus we can understand how great a task it has to accomplish this, and how high are the demands which this implies. Not only must it fulfill its own purpose as the school which gives

general training during the period of compulsory education as prescribed by law, but it must also provide the educational foundation for the higher schools, middle schools, and Gymnasium, thus becoming the basis too, of higher intellectual life and of scientific research throughout the country.

Naturally, the fact that the elementary school system is given so great a task, is extraordinarily stimulating; on the other hand, we cannot close our eyes to the fact that it has not yet been sufficiently equipped to be strong enough for the achievement of its task. The enormous economic depression of the post-war period forms an obstacle in the path of the necessary reform work.

History, however, occupies a position in Norwegian schools which makes it only slightly dependent on external organization, and consequently it is not much affected if the organization does not keep in step with the demands for progress. This subject of instruction leads, so to speak, an independent existence nourished by sources outside the school which neither a temporary depression nor ruthless economy in the field of administration can destroy. The situation is such that history as a subject of instruction can always depend for powerful support on the strong historical consciousness of our people and their lively interest in the subject. This interest in history has always made itself felt but in varying degrees in various periods of our national history. The nation by and large has been drawn into this movement wherein past and present meet, especially since the middle of the last century, when national-romantic ideals came into prominence.

This interest in history has been most evident among our rural population. This is quite natural, as the historical events which are peculiar to our country occurred in the course of the centuries when the farmers were the mainstay of national life and of national traditions, a rôle of which they are today conscious to a high degree. Moreover, people living in the country find *leisure* during the long, dark winter, whereas the masses in the cities and in industrial centers rarely have time and money for anything but work and rest. However, it must be admitted that this interest is less evident at present among the growing youth than among children and their parents.

Thus, environment and background are in themselves favorable to history instruction in the schools. And the teachers are recruited largely from rural sections: when they begin their training, they are thus already interested in history, and they find this interest among the children, if they, themselves, start their teaching career in the elementary school. Interest in history is, as a matter of fact, so general that one may well count on it in school work

and one cannot evaluate the place and the importance of this subject merely by considering the number of hours devoted to it.

This is evident also in other subjects taught in the school. Instruction in the mother tongue in elementary schools is based to a large extent on history material, taken mainly from the richest or most dramatic epochs of national history. This gives a valuable correlation with history, or rather, instruction in the mother tongue and in history are harmoniously integrated, as elementary education is departmentalized only to a small degree, so that one subject can support and supplement the other. The most commonly used reader,² which is available for all elementary school age levels, was written not only by a talented teacher, but written also from a truly artistic viewpoint, and it is in fact the finest history text, and the one offering most material which is available to the child. The written exercises connected with instruction in the mother tongue are likewise centered, for the most part, around historical themes. In this connection it must be stated that a greater number of periods is allotted to the mother tongue in all Norwegian schools than is ordinarily the case in the schools of other countries, a condition from which history instruction likewise profits.

Moreover, Local Studies (*Heimatkunde*) must be mentioned, which prepare the pupils in a harmonious manner for their instruction in history later on. These studies offer the teacher an opportunity to lead the children naturally and gradually from the limited territory of their home town and parish, which provides the starting point, to the wider, national horizon, and from a sane and fine attachment to their home district to an equally sane and fine patriotism. The modern excellent development of Local Studies in Norway has been followed by a wave of interest in local historical research. It is characteristic that the elementary teachers have devoted themselves with much eagerness to this field; many of the results accomplished were of little importance, although many were of considerable value. But the deep interest in history which we have mentioned found expression everywhere and served to enrich history instruction in the schools and to deepen the students' feeling for history.

B. THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

It will be best to base our investigation of history instruction in the Norwegian elementary schools and of its aims and methods on the standard curriculum which was issued by the Ministry for Religious Affairs and Education, for the rural elementary schools, in 1922, and for the city elementary schools, in 1925. As already pointed out, great

differences exist in Norwegian elementary education between rural and city elementary schools; there are also considerable differences in the organization of the elementary schools in municipalities and in rural communities. But the latitude of the law in regard to the freedom of local administrations to organize their elementary schools in accordance with local means and needs, is of small and insignificant practical consequence for a subject like history, and if consequences there are, they favor the subject and are not detrimental to it, nor do they limit its place in the course of study. In this respect it is significant that the two standard courses are similar as far as history is concerned and that their time tables provide for an equal number of hours per week, that is, two weekly hours for each grade beginning with the fourth grade. Moreover, these standard curricula have been received with such general approval by the school districts of the state, and the revision of the old curricula and the development of the new ones have had such an influence upon the teaching program, that we are able to give an especially reliable picture of the position of history in the curriculum, and of the method of history instruction in the elementary schools of Norway.

Frequently, the Reader used in instruction in the mother tongue offers some history material from the second grade on, but in the three first grades history is not yet an independent subject but forms part of the Local Studies. In discussing the aim of these studies [the course of study] states expressly:

Local studies are the basis of instruction in natural history, geography and *history* (italicized by the author) instruction in the mother tongue is also to be connected with them. This applies equally to speech training (story telling), reading and composition.

In the third school year, the imaginative power of the children is so far developed that the Local Studies may include:

Some facts about the life of the immediate home district in the olden times:

Houses, dress, utensils, work, etc., transportation, excursions to historic spots and buildings if such are available, for instance to tumuli, ruins, memorial stones, churches, etc. Historic tales of the locality.

Thus runs the standard curriculum. But it must be added that the curricula of the Oslo elementary schools, for instance, clearly define the Local Studies during the third school year as "a transition to instruction by subjects," and provide in the same school year one weekly hour for instruction in history, thus making it a separate subject from then on. During the third as well as the fourth school year, instruction is oral and no textbook is used. With the help of the most interesting sagas about

gods and heroes, and descriptions of the life of outstanding personalities and those who had a share in the development of the nation, the class will have progressed far enough so that stories about the Black Death and about Queen Marguerite can be told to the children. As far as this preparatory instruction, this "introduction to history as an independent subject" is concerned, the teacher will have to limit himself to national history.

The aim of this work is to develop in the pupils some historical concepts as the basis of their future systematic instruction in history; this is to be done with the help of descriptions centered around outstanding figures from the sagas, or about historical characters; the emotional and the imaginative powers of the pupils are to be stimulated.

The place of history in Local Studies is most strongly emphasized in the suggestions contained in the book "Landsfolkeskolen" by Schuldirektor O. A. Eftestol. The curriculum given therein was used as a sort of model curriculum in the years previous to the publication of the official curriculum. The book recommends that some historical concepts be developed in the children as early as the second school year, by means of careful and limited comparisons, that they be told something about the historical events which occurred in their home locality, and that the sagas which are connected with these events be related to the children; if there are historical buildings, these should be visited, and, if feasible, the children should make models of them.

But the state course of study introduces systematic instruction in history only with the beginning of the fourth school year; as mentioned above, the Local Studies are a preparation for this. The aim is knowledge of:

(1) the most important figures and events in national history, (2) those events in world history which had the greatest influence upon our own history; and (3) the characteristic features of our social order.

Thus, a beginning is made with pre-historic times in Norway. The children are told some of the facts about the manner in which people supported themselves and about their cultural life during the stone age, the bronze age and the early iron age, and the union of the individual sections of the country is studied. The time of the Vikings, the union of Norway, the conversion of the nation to Christianity are discussed, and subsequently the state and the church constitutions up to the year 1130; the growth of towns and town life, convents and laws are studied to acquaint the children with the more advanced social organization of that period.

We shall not enter here into details which refer to the history of Norway. As far as the ground

covered is concerned, it might be interesting to the reader to know that the plan provides that the work of the fifth school year should lead up to the year 1661, while during the sixth school year the work shall progress as far as the year 1814. The last school year can be devoted entirely to the period from 1814 to the present day, and the characteristic features of state and communal government in our country may also be studied during that year.

As far as the purpose of our investigation is concerned, it is of decisive importance to ascertain how much of world history is considered essential for elementary school instruction in a small country. I do not include in this Sweden's and Denmark's history, as the historical development of these Nordic states has permanently influenced our own, and was similar to it during long periods of time, so that with us a study of our national history always includes the chief elements of Danish and Swedish history of the same period. During the fourth school year, the following phases of world history are studied:

"History tales of Greece and Rome and of the time of the migrations; emperor and pope; crusades and the Catholic Church; feudalism and knighthood. During the fifth school year: the German cities; the Hanseatic League; Luther and the Reformation; the great discoveries and inventions; Holland's struggle for independence; the Thirty Years' War. During the sixth school year: France and England after 1660; the Time of Enlightenment; the American Revolution; the French Revolution; the wars of the revolution and Napoleon. During the seventh school year: the July Revolution and the February Revolution; industrialism and labor; emigration. Also: England as a world power; colonies; Gladstone; the American Civil War; the wars between Denmark and Germany, and between Germany and France; Bismarck; Socialism; the World War; the peace problem and the League of Nations."

This short outline will probably suffice to give the reader an idea of how much more ground has to be covered by history instruction in a small country, compared to the schools of large states whose national history is, at the same time, world history.³

More time must be devoted to history instruction because the conscientious teacher, when discussing the material, must always attempt to correlate the history of his own country as closely as possible with that of the great powers and with material advance and cultural movements throughout the rest of the world. When national history is the center of history instruction, there is always danger that the development and the importance of

the country in question will assume undue proportions to the detriment of the child's proper understanding of the position held by his country as a small part of Europe and an even smaller part of the whole world.

Naturally, the individual teachers as well as the school authorities give their attention to this, although it is difficult to emphasize the point enough and strongly enough. One reason for this difficulty is that we have to reckon in this respect with certain national-psychological and moral effects which must not be overlooked, least of all in our time.

Opinion is divided as to the relative merits of using a separate textbook for world history and another one for the history of Norway and Scandinavia, or of using one textbook on national history which contains the essentials of world history. But everyone is ready to agree that the use of maps as frequently as possible constitutes a useful remedy for this difficulty.

Let us consider now what instructions the Norwegian state curriculum contains as to method in general. First of all, it emphasizes that throughout every school year the oral presentation of material by the teacher must be the basis of instruction in history; his preparation must, therefore, be so thorough that he can discourse clearly, vividly, and interestingly. The course of study says further:

1. Generally speaking, the teacher must put emphasis on awakening the children's interest in history and on developing in them a taste for historical literature. During the last school years, the children shall be guided in the proper selection of historical books for home reading. The school libraries shall contain a sufficiently large selection of good books with historical subjects.

2. The aim of history instruction shall be to give the children a *correct* and sufficiently complete idea of historical events and evolution. Therefore, instruction in history must not consist *solely* of tales about individuals, such as kings and leaders and their lives and deeds. The children shall also learn about the life of the common people and conditions of life during the different epochs, about the people at work, about their cares, about the nation in war and peace, in good and hard times. Only *those* wars are to be studied which have left actual traces in the life of the nation and of the state. The social community of the state rests on peaceful work; and through it the foundation is laid for all progress and development, and the teacher must, therefore, be careful to bring out this fact vividly in his tales and descriptions.

3. In the study of world history, those events shall be stressed which were of especial importance for the development of our country. They must always be presented to the pupils in such a manner that the connection between world events and events in this country is clearly brought out. . . .

4. The teacher shall not begin too early to give

home work in history (see 1), and if he gives home work the material to be studied by the child at home must previously have been studied so thoroughly in school that the child knows the main content before he begins to learn his lesson at home. The children must not be permitted to cram by learning their lessons by heart; they should recite the stories told them in a free and natural manner.

5. Pictures of historical events, maps, drawings and blackboard sketches shall be used extensively. Places mentioned in history instructions must be pointed out to the children on the map. The children shall have small sketch books for use in their history classes. It is best of all, of course, if the teacher can avail himself of implements or other objects from ancient times and can show these to the children. Historical collections and museums shall be utilized in instruction in the best manner possible; historical poems are to be used; songs pertaining to the subject studied shall be sung by the children during the period.

6. The material studied is to be summarized repeatedly.

I should like to define more clearly certain points of these instructions which, if compared with the report "*L'Enseignement de l'histoire dans les Ecoles d'enseignement primaires françaises*" by General Inspector Pierre Capras, may be of especial interest to the committee which is to deal with the reports from the different countries.

It strikes us immediately that in Norway too the teacher enjoys the greatest freedom in the selection of method and of the general plan which he intends to follow within the limits set by the curriculum of his school. According to his subjective opinion, he will, therefore, plan his lessons in a manner which seems to him most promising of results; he will choose means which, according to his own opinion, harmonize best with his natural teaching ability and with his educational theory; he will even be able to stress in certain phases of the work his own scholastic interest or the field which he has made a subject to special study, although this will be the case in the elementary grades to a lesser degree than in higher grades. In reality, the freedom of the teacher is still greater than indicated here, for in Norway the standard curriculum is not prescribed by the Ministry. Supervisory boards whose members are elected by the people see to it that the curricula of the individual schools are carried out; professional supervision takes the form of inspections by officers whose territories consist of whole bishoprics, so that the inspections occur at long intervals.

As can be seen, no explicit provision for the awakening and fostering of a nationalistic spirit has been included among the aims of history instruction as defined by the Norwegian curriculum.

Such sobriety is in full harmony with the nature of our people and our national character. We react quickly and strongly if we become aware during our work or even before we have begun to work, of a demand which smacks of propaganda. The same is true of our teachers. In the same way, the careful teacher will beware of suggesting to the children at the wrong moment, that they take as a warning or for an example one or another definite "moral" taught by a person's life or by a deed. For most often one is likely to achieve through this the exact opposite of that which one intended to bring out. If the teacher is a true psychologist, he will see to it that history conveys its message to the young people directly through personages and events. In this regard it is important that the relation of the teacher to his subject should bear a personal stamp, that the pupils sense his active interest in his material and that thus his teaching personality give the impression of subjectivity. But at the same time the teacher must feel sufficient responsibility for a critical presentation of his material in such a way that different viewpoints and opinions are brought out, that he does not force his own way of looking at things upon his pupils, and that his teaching has thus an objective aim.⁴ But on the whole, all this will be of actual importance only in the higher grades when the children's thinking becomes more and more critical.

If I have emphasized the fact that the Norwegian curricula refer in no way to the fostering of patriotism, this does not mean that we in Norway are not also of the opinion that history instruction can, in a sane and natural manner, influence the children's consciousness as regards patriotism and community spirit. This opinion has been expressed again and again in debates in the National Assembly concerning our school reform; such a belief in regard to the objectives of this subject has been supported by the opinion of politicians as well as of educators and thus provides permanently one of the motives underlying school legislation concerning history. I have to add that the course of study of the Oslo elementary schools defines the aim of the subject thus:

"The aim of history instruction shall be to awaken in the children an interest in history and to provide them with the foundation for an understanding of the historical development of our nation and of the importance of our social order, and to *strengthen their love for their nation and country*, (italicized by the author).

However, if we disregard the general pedagogical value of this subject and ask ourselves why national history has been assigned such a prominent place in the Norwegian schools, the answer is likely to indicate that history must give the children

a better knowledge and understanding of the community in whose life and work they will have an active share as citizens in the years to come. Just as several of the other elementary school subjects are centered to a considerable degree about sectional and national topics, and make it their aim to give the pupils as thorough a knowledge as possible of present-day national affairs and of the conditions of life and work of their own nation, in the same way a knowledge of the past and of the development up to the present time will enable them to get their bearings in a modern community more easily because of better preparation, and to consider with sure understanding the problems with which they will be confronted later as modern citizens. Naturally, there are a number of additional reasons which justify the prominence of the subject, founded on traditional, national-psychological, ethical, political and other viewpoints, which, to a large extent, are centered about national interests and aim at a national objective, namely, a strengthening of the young people's feeling of unity with their nation and country. But as a nation which has enjoyed peace since 1814, it is easier for us to develop this understanding in such a manner that it extends to the nations living nearest to us and with which we are most closely related, and thus it becomes altogether a basis for a humane and unbiased attitude toward other countries and nations or, in other words, the basis for an international spirit. Without wishing to overestimate the value of the attempts which have been made in this respect, it must be mentioned that authorities as well as teachers have been in sympathy with the endeavors to let history instruction serve the work for international peace and understanding. Of especial importance in this regard is the *objectivity* of our textbooks; we believe that we have made comparatively great progress in this field.⁵ Objections are raised to national boastfulness as well as senseless talk concerning other nations.⁶ On the other hand, it may be to our advantage that we shall have to do considerable work before history instruction can treat issues of internal politics such as class struggle, socialism, communism, etc. with the same objectivity.

Finally, I should like to point out that the emphasis of the curriculum on the teacher's lecture as the basis of instruction encourages a talent which is deeply rooted in our nation, a talent for epic presentation. In this regard too, our rural elementary schools are well provided for. And the extensive employment of women teachers, which is also a characteristic feature of our Norwegian schools, shows how greatly history profits by the use of this talent. Moreover, we must not disregard the stimulus which our elementary school teachers re-

ceive from the Nordic folk high school movement which assigned the place of honor among methods of instruction to the lecture, and developed this method so that it achieved great vividness and clarity; a certain chauvinistic influence issuing from that quarter was, however, not beneficial and makes improvements necessary.

Moreover, I should like to emphasize the fact that the curricula make objectivity in the presentation of the material, a duty of the teachers. Cultural history has been given a place, whereas the history of wars has been forced into the background; the constructive work of peace is strongly emphasized. Consideration is given to biographical as well as to the comparative and correlative methods; the biographical method⁷ is especially productive of good results in all grades, not least in primary education. The teacher is reminded to use all enrichment materials as copiously as possible and is referred to the value of integration with other subjects such as the mother tongue, geography, drawing and singing. The demand that the children shall be able to recite the stories told them in "a free and natural manner" and that learning by rote memory shall not be permitted, is based on a desire more urgent than the foreigner may suspect. For our elementary schools, and especially our rural elementary schools, are handicapped in many places by the heritage of the time when the school was a community affair and, in the main, a subdivision of the church. Not only the catechism and the exegesis were learned by memory, but, in fact, memoriter learning pervaded the whole school. When, in 1860, the school was separated from the church and made independent, and was given a secular aim of its own, that of becoming an instrument of the state and the nation for the education of enlightened citizens, it as anything but easy to divorce teachers and parents from the old method of memory learning. And owing to the persistent conservatism common to all rural districts and to the traditionalism of a farming population, our elementary schools have, to the present day, not succeeded throughout in freeing themselves of this undesirable feature. The authorities must watch out for these unwelcome relics of the past, if instruction is to be and to become as modern and as effective as possible.

C. CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

Norway has not instituted a national system of compulsory training at continuation schools for those who do not enter a higher school after graduation from elementary school. But the law permits the communities to establish continuation schools of various kinds, of a general educational nature as well as of a more special and practical nature, for girls as well as for boys. Apart from

the restrictions inherent in the fact that the course of study must be approved by the state school authorities before the school is accredited and thus becomes entitled to a state subsidy, the school boards wishing to work out their plans for a continuation school are given a free hand in this field also. Instruction shall extend over a period of from one to six months, or a two year course shall be established suitable for young people who are between 14 and 18 years of age. As a rule, history is not an independent subject in such schools but forms a part of the study of the mother tongue and of civics; the later, by the way, is always more or less historically colored in these schools.

But quite characteristically, it happens in rural districts that three hours weekly are allotted to history. In these courses, the main events of Norwegian history from 1800 to the present day are studied, together with a selection from the *current history* of the most important civilized nations, and, in addition to this, civics.⁸ For the schools for young girls, selections from the works of our greatest poets are recommended for instruction in language, and a study is made of the movement for women's rights, of the different kinds of training for women and of the working conditions which women find in various occupations.⁹

In the Oslo continuation schools, civics is included in the six weekly hours of instruction in the mother tongue. The aim of this phase of instruction is the awakening of an understanding of, and interest in, the importance of community life, in its great issues, and in the relationships and the responsibility of the individual as a member of society. The introduction to civics proper starts with the home and deals briefly with the development of communal life and with the advantages resulting from life in an organized society. After this, our own social conditions are discussed in greater detail. Content for this instruction is to be drawn especially from these sources: work and working conditions; our economic life; transportation; welfare institutions; institutions serving the advancement of culture; state and municipal administration. No special periods are reserved for history and geography, "but those phases of history and geography are studied in connection with the general instruction which may throw light upon the content and give a better understanding of it, especially for the work in civics."

The special course of study for the continuation schools for girls gives the following suggestions for civics:

The starting point for this instruction is the family and family life, and in connection with this some phases of civil law. The development of family life and its importance to society is studied, together

with marriage and its legal aspects; further topics are: the property rights of marriage partners, parents and children, children and society, the school. In addition to this, the position of woman in society is studied along with the different vocations and professions open to women. In connection with this, the choice of a vocation by the individual pupils is discussed, and they are informed as to different kinds of training for practical work. At the end, a short survey of the relation between citizen and state and community is to be given.

Instruction is given by the lecture method, and with reviews in the form of discussions and examinations. Attempts are made to make the content as vivid as possible and to suit it to the comprehension of the individual pupils; this is done with the help of examples drawn from situations which the pupils have themselves experienced or which they can understand, and partly through examples taken from literature and *history* (italicized by the author). The interest of the pupils in the different aspects of civic life will be aroused gradually in this manner, and they will be brought to realize how great the importance of the social order to the individual is, and also how great the importance of the regulation of private relations is for the individual.

Altogether, attempts must be made to organize the content in such a manner that it may serve as a basis for the development of will and intellect, as well as to enable the student to acquire the necessary information. For this reason, ethical questions must also be introduced into instruction.

Another curriculum includes in the prescribed content the biographies of men and women famous because of their lives and their work for the family and for society; in addition to the regular work in history and geography also includes: Oslo in past and present, Norway and the Norwegians (reading of sagas), physical geography, economic life, transportation, inventions and discoveries.

D. THE TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

(Seminars)

The training of teachers for Norwegian elementary schools occurs in three year teacher seminars. Persons possessing a leaving certificate of a secondary school may demand exemption from the entrance examination in several subjects, among which is *history* and their teacher training takes place preferably in separate one year courses. As for the rest, a special entrance examination must be taken by all those applying for admission as students to a teacher training school. In history the student must prove his knowledge of the following phases:

National history in story form on the basis of a short textbook, and the elements of our social order. Events in other countries which were of outstanding importance to the development of the world as a whole.

The legal requirements for the teacher's examination proper are as follows: Review of world history and a thorough knowledge of the lives of persons most important in the development of various cultures and social conditions. National history is to be treated in greater detail than any other, and the same applies to the epochs in the history of neighboring countries which were of most importance to our national history. The elements of our social order.

The curriculum allots to the subject 3—2—3 periods per week for three years and prescribes:

The aim of instruction is to inform the students about the cultural and social life of mankind and especially of our own nation from the old days to the present.

. . . The history of our country is studied in greater detail than anything else, along with those periods in the history of neighboring countries which are of most importance to us, but this study is carried on in such a fashion that these phases of history appear as an integral part of world history.

The history of the immediate past is emphasized. As thorough a study as possible of the period from 1814 on shall be reserved for the last school year. A short review of our constitution and municipal representation as well as of our administration of justice is to be connected with the study of national history during the century.

Through pointing out suitable reading matter to the students, the teacher shall try to arouse their interest in historical literature and to assist them thus in deepening their knowledge through self-directed study. If the teacher is thoroughly familiar with an important period or event within the prescribed field of history, he must attempt to reserve time for lectures on this subject to his pupils.

. . . All grades are to have exercises in the written treatment of historical themes. . . .

On the whole it may be said that the teacher training schools labor, in part, under the same disadvantages and enjoy the same advantages in their work of teaching history as the rural elementary schools. I am not referring here to certain effects upon the quality of instruction produced by the shortage of teachers during the war.

For a long time, the teacher training school provided the only avenue to further study for talented and energetic young people of the peasant class who desired further academic training. The majority of our elementary school teachers are still recruited from rural districts. Consequently, history is a popular subject in the teacher training schools, and it is necessary for the students to become proficient in this subject. But in the teacher training schools we find still traces of methods

which should long have been abandoned—shades of the village schools and of the days when the drill method favored by the church was in flower. Thus the teacher training school has an important task—to organize teacher training along as modern lines as possible, to present all of its own content of instruction by a method which is based on sound psychology, and generally to develop in its students as future teachers an attitude wholeheartedly in sympathy with psychological principles.

Most of our teacher training schools have been conscious of this task and have done work which, even when viewed from this special viewpoint, commands respect. Moreover, many of them have been able to introduce freer and more modern methods of history instruction under the existing organization, and have done so in a praiseworthy fashion. Cultural history has been given a wider scope, attempts have been made to base history instruction on local studies and a study of source materials; the students are given small, individual research problems which they have to solve independently, history instruction is being integrated with some of the other subjects, the students are being shown samples of historical documents and are made acquainted with historical criticism, and carefully prepared excursions resulting in assignments are arranged.

Naturally, such experiments and the profit derived from them depend in the first place on the teacher in question, and on the desire for progress and the ability of the director (of the seminar). But the lack of sufficient time has been a very great difficulty, a handicap from which, by the way, the

whole teacher training course has suffered. Therefore, the reform movement is aiming at an extension of the teacher training course to four years. More and more purposeful work is being done now to solve the problem of the reform of teacher training, i.e., the establishment of two year teacher training schools or pedagogical academies which are to be open to students who have passed the university matriculation examination. Wherever the solution of the problem may lie, history instruction will, in any case, receive new impetus, and the rich values of this subject will be utilized in accordance with modern educational programs and with practical experience. Nor must we forget that the Norwegian elementary school teachers and the elementary schools will profit gradually from the stimulus and the impulses issuing from the excellently directed history instruction at the comparatively new Teachers College at Drontheim.

¹The seven year elementary school which the children usually enter at the age of seven is followed by the secondary school which has two divisions—the three year middle school for pupils from fourteen to seventeen and the Gymnasium for pupils from seventeen to twenty.

²Nordahl Rolfsen, *Lesebok for folkeskolen I-V; Fedreland og fremmed land VI*.

³As an example I should like to mention that one of our textbooks dealing with national history, which has 192 pages, is supplemented by a textbook giving the most important facts of world history, which has 112 pages.

⁴Cf. VI* *Congrès International des Sciences Historiques Résumé* p. 375-376 (Michel Lheritier).

⁵Cf. Report on Nationalism in History Textbooks, I, p. 200.

⁶Cf. *ibid.*, p. 194 ff. and "Foredrag om Historieundervisning ved Mødet paa Hindsgavl Sommeren 1926 (Koht) p. 26.

⁷Regarding this and several other points made, cf. Sigurd Host: *The Problem of History Teaching*, especially p. 18.

⁸Eftestol, *Landsfolkeskolen*, p. 162.

⁹*Ibid.* p. 150.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, PH.D., *Harvard University*

HISTORY REFERENCE COUNCIL

The History Reference Council (14 Kirkland Place, Cambridge, Massachusetts) publishes each year a series of Bulletins containing materials on the life and customs of early Americans and medieval Europeans. The Bulletins are made up of excerpts from original sources adapted for school use. Among the subjects to be treated in 1932-33 are: the Loyalists in America; letters from the frontier; motives for the westward movement; songs of the lumbermen; city life in medieval Venice; the care of the sick in medieval times; Norman architecture in England; and matters for the young. Extensive indices and notes on excerpts increase the usefulness of the Bulletins.

Organized in 1926, the History Reference Council then included among its members only a few schools

interested in securing vitalizing source materials for their history classes. Its growth has been marked since 1926, and today its Bulletins are distributed throughout the country. Subscription for a single copy of each Bulletin in \$5.00 a year; library membership, which brings three copies of each Bulletin, is \$10.00 a year; class membership, which brings twenty copies of each Bulletin, is \$15.00 a year.

BOOKLETS ON CURRENT TOPICS

The American Education Press (40 South Third Street, Columbus, Ohio) is issuing a series of booklets embodying something of a new approach to the teaching of modern problems. The booklets are prepared under the general editorship of a group of able and impartial scholars; each booklet contains a narra-

tive discussion of a single topic of current significance, together with outlines, questions, study suggestions, and reading references. Single copies of the booklets are fifteen cents; in lots of twenty or more they are ten cents each.

The following six booklets were ready for distribution on November 1, 1932:

- No. 1. The Depression—What Caused It?
- No. 2. The Depression—What Can We Do About It?
- No. 3. Economic Planning—Can Depressions Be Abolished?
- No. 4. Unemployment Insurance.
- No. 5. Crime—Its Prevalence, Causes, and Costs.
- No. 6. The Services and Costs of Government

Among the booklets in preparation are:

- Recent Economic Changes and Their Meaning.
- Vocational Opportunities in a Machine Age.
- Our Newest Problem—Leisure.
- Balancing the Budget.
- You and Insurance.
- Tariffs, World Trade, and the Pay Envelope.
- Experiments in Government: Socialism, Communism, Fascism, Democracy.
- Freedom—Is It Worth the Price?

LEISURE IN THE COURSE OF STUDY

A unit on the use of *Leisure* has been introduced into the social-studies course-of-study in Tulsa, Oklahoma. The unit is an elective for pupils, and is designed to give pupils certain experiences in planning for the fruitful use of their own leisure time. As outlined by Miss Esther Larson, of the Tulsa schools, the unit is to include the following:

- Part I. The study of leisure as a problem in modern living.
 - A. Unemployment in our machine age.
 - B. After commencement, what?
 - C. Commercialized exploitation of leisure time.
 - D. Leisure and crime.
- Part II. Avocational guidance as a part of our education.
 - A. The importance of recreation in modern living.
 - B. An inventory of your recreational activities.
 - C. The recreational facilities of Tulsa.
 - D. A comparative study of recreation in some other city or community.
 - E. The historical origin and development of favorite avocations, sports, and amusements.
 - F. An evaluation of the leading types of leisure activities.
- Part III. Worth-while projects involving the pupil's personal planning for his own leisure and giving him experiences in a variety of avocational interests.
- Part IV. A personal evaluation of the value of the unit.

N.E.B.

The League of Nations Chronicle, a monthly newspaper devoted to international relations and world affairs is published by the League of Nations Association of Illinois and the Midwest, 203 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois. Among its contributing editors are J. J. Duncan-Clark, Quincy Wright, and Pitman Potter. Subscription rate is fifty cents a year.

GEOGRAPHIC NEWS BULLETINS

The National Geographic Society (Washington, D.C.) issues each week a ten-page pamphlet, *Geographic News Bulletins*, intended for school use, and of considerable interest to teachers of all the social studies. Each issue contains five brief articles of current interest, well illustrated. Typical of the articles are those for the issue of October 10, 1932—(1) "Jehol, New Province in the Manchurian Spotlight," (2) "Holland's Historic Zuiderzee Becomes Farmland and Lake," (3) "Mercury, Liquid Metal of a Thousand Uses," (4) "Eclipse Expedition Gets Rare Photographs from Five Miles Up," (5) "Bolivia, Paraguay, and the Gran Chaco Trouble Zone." The publication of the pamphlet is not a profit-making or propagandizing enterprise. Request for the bulletin, however, must be accompanied by twenty-five cents to cover mailing costs for the thirty weeks of the school year during which it appears.

A recent bulletin of the University of the State of New York (No. 1005, October, 1932, Albany, New York), prepared by Caroline A. Whipple, state supervisor of adult education, is a "Course of Study for Non-English-Speaking Adults." It contains teaching suggestions for adult classes, word lists, bibliographies, general outlines, and special outlines for courses in American history, government and civics, geography, health and hygiene, and literature.

Marguerite Logan, of State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, contributes an illuminating article entitled, "A Guide to the Organization of a Geographic Unit," to the *Journal of Geography* for October, 1932 (Vol. XXXI, No. 7, pp. 269-278). Taking the point of view that "a teaching unit is a body of material organized by means of careful study directions so as to lead the learner to the mastery of a definite core of thought," she discusses the materials of which geographic units are made and the general method to be followed in teaching a unit.

ABSTRACTS IN HISTORY

Abstracts of twelve doctoral dissertations as accepted by the Graduate College of the State University of Iowa between 1922 and 1930 are brought together in Bulletin No. 2, Vol. X, of the *University of Iowa Studies*. Most of the abstracts deal with American history: the titles are—"Robert Hunter, Royal Governor of New York: a Study in Colonial Administration"; "Maryland in the Time of Governor Horatio Sharpe, 1753-1769"; "Sir Francis Nicholson, a Royal Governor in the Chesapeake Colonies during the Period of 1690-1705"; "Credit Relations between Colonial and English Merchants in the 18th Century";

"Anglo-Spanish Commercial Relations 1700-1750"; "The Educational Policy of the Methodist Episcopal Church Prior to 1860"; "The Settlement and Economic Development of the Territory of Dakota"; "The History of the Danes in Iowa"; "Steamboating on the Upper Mississippi 1823-1861"; "The Public Career of William Boyd Allison"; "The International Status of Belgium 1813-1839"; "Anglo-Russian Rivalry in the Far East 1895-1905."

A bulletin, compiled by Mary Alice Matthews, and published in August, 1932, by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace Library (700 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.) contains unusually complete bibliographies on the topic, "Education for World Peace: The Study and Teaching of International Relations and International Law." The bibliography is annotated and includes references to books, pamphlets, and periodical articles. Copies may be secured on application.

"The function of historical fiction is to take materials that repose in forgotten yesterdays, sort them out, and give to them vitality and glamour," writes John H. Elson in discussing "The Value of Historical Fiction" in *The School* (Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada, XXXI, 2, October, 1932, pp. 100-105). Briefly discussing the values of fiction in teaching history, the author then suggests a list of best volumes of historical fiction which deal with Canadian history.

MICHIGAN EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Social science was an outstanding topic at the annual meeting of District No. 1 (Detroit and Wayne County) of the Michigan Education Association which held its sessions on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, October 28, 29, and 30. The general session on Thursday night was addressed by Professor Boyd H. Bode of Ohio State University on "The Next Step in Education," which he sees as the development of the power to think and apply thought in social situations. On Friday the program of the Administration Division consisted of a demonstration of the group discussion on jury panel technique. The subject discussed was: "To What Extent Should the School Lead in Determining the Direction in Social Change?" Friday noon the Social Science Section held a luncheon meeting attended by more than five hundred persons. The speaker at this meeting was Fenner Brockway, an English labor leader, who spoke on "The Road to Social Justice." Miss Edith Kimball, head of the social-science department of Northeastern High School, Detroit, was elected chairman of the Social Science Section for the coming year.

C.C.B.

Directed High School History Study, Book I, by Alice Magenis and Madeline F. Gilmour (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1932), is a pupil's manual for use in the first half of a course in world

history. The workbook covers eight major units—Pre-historic Times, Ancient Orient, Greece, Rome, Early Middle Ages, Late Middle Ages, Reformation and Religious Wars, European Monarchy. Each major division is divided into a series of teaching topics. For each topic there are reading references, fact questions, discussion questions, and general study exercises. Each major part has an extended reading list; there are tests, charts, maps-to-complete, and pertinent illustrations throughout the manual.

ATLAS OF HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

The Carnegie Institution of Washington and the American Geographical Society published jointly in 1932 an *Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States*, by C. O. Paullin, which has been thirty years in the making. It contains more than 620 maps dealing with such topics as natural environment, cartography and explorers' routes of the years 1535-1852, Indians, lands, population and settlement, cultural and religious development, political parties and opinions, reforms, economic history, military history, and city plans. (American Geographical Society of New York, \$15.00.)

C. M. Koon of the United States Office of Education discusses "Social Science by Radio" in *School and Society* for October 22, 1932 (Vol. XXXVI, No. 930, pp. 533-4). In analyzing the possibilities of radio instruction he points out:

1. "The radio is an excellent source of up-to-date information by outstanding authorities . . . but it is difficult to fit the broadcast material into the course of study and the daily schedule. . . ."

2. "The radio presentation has certain dynamic qualities, but it lacks the permanency of the printed copy."

3. "If broadcasting facilities are available, outstanding achievements of pupils . . . can be broadcast to the general public as well as to other schools."

His general conclusion is that "radio affords a splendid opportunity to keep the pupils acquainted with significant events in the outside world and to keep the outside world acquainted with significant events in the school."

For those teachers interested in the wise use of radio education the "Radio in Education" number of the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (October, 1932) offers many practical suggestions.

The Executive Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies has prepared a leaflet describing the work of that organization. The leaflet is intended for distribution to all interested teachers of the social studies. Chairmen of convention meetings may secure copies by addressing Miss Bessie L. Pierce, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, or Mr. Howard E. Wilson, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Lambert Wickes, Sea Raider and Diplomat. By William Bell Clark. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932. 466 pp.

This account of the Maryland sea captain who carried Benjamin Franklin from Philadelphia to St. Nazaire in the last months of 1776 regains lost ground. The trip through dangerous seas has been too often taken for granted as has the later eminence of John Paul Jones. Here in a carefully prepared sketch is the man who laid the foundation for the commander of the *Bon Homme Richard* to build on. Their services in European waters did not conflict for Wickes' tragedy off the Newfoundland Banks took place a few weeks before the *Ranger* sailed into the Loire with the news of Burgoyne's surrender. Now with the biographies of Dr. Franklin and Captain Jones is this scholarly work to supplement the record of our naval and diplomatic achievements during the Revolution.

The biography opens with a résumé of the functioning of the Marine Committee of the Continental Congress. The purchase of ships, the enlistment of men and the commissioning of officers dates from the first year of the war. Merchant shippers like Robert Morris and John Hancock were alert to guard American waters. But the methods used were typical of the new born democracy! Pirateering was lucrative and interfered with enlistments, and commissions were engulfed in intrigue. Yet in the midst of these difficulties certain real personalities stand out—among them the merchant captain from the Eastern Shore who was rated sixth in seniority on the Congressional naval list. "The Battle in the Delaware"—a careful piece of description—resulted from an attempt of His Majesty's ships *Roebuck* and *Liverpool* to reopen the Delaware to British navigation. The American command bungled—Wickes was in a minor rôle—and a fine opportunity to destroy the offending cruisers was thrown away. But very soon afterwards in the Martinico expedition, Wickes, away from petty interference and in sole command, showed his efficiency. Not only were many prizes taken but, more important, the French authorities practically placed Wickes under their protection aiding him in every way possible. He was the lion of the hour at St. Pierre rather than just an American pirate.

But the vital point in his career is told in the chapter entitled "Dr. Benjamin Franklin Goes to France." Wickes sailed hostile seas and safely landed the 71 year old Commissioner near St. Nazaire—in certain respects 1776 was not altogether unlike 1918 and the A.E.F.! Then the drama already played in the West Indies was repeated on a larger scale. Stormont, the British Ambassador, always protested but the American ships invariably obtaining their necessary supplies. And this use of French ports by the Americans was a victory to be shared by the three commissioners at Paris and the captain of the *Reprisal*. It had a definite

and sinister purpose. Despite graft and all kinds of double dealing—Paris was a nest of spies—and certain Americans (Robert Morris's brother in the lead) who did not shine forth as patriotic—the international plot was successful in that the British were goaded into fury. The raid around Ireland by Wickes' squadron (made possible by the use of French ports for refitting) took enemy prizes within her own waters. This started the fear in England that her own untouched shores were not immune from raid—a fear which Jones, beginning the next year, maintained at the maximum. After this lucrative foray, Wickes escaped capture by the *Burford* of 74 guns by a most clever piece of maneuvering. Thus the stage was set in Paris for the arrival of the victorious news from Saratoga which John Paul Jones brought December 2, 1777, and very soon the Americans were formally recognized by this continental power. But almost two months to a day previously Captain Wickes returning to America in the *Reprisal* had gone down off Newfoundland. A tragic ending for a notable captain who has been forgotten—not even the prize money due to Wickes and his crew was ever forthcoming!

A brief sketch of this kind is unfair to the author. The material is interestingly written and in great detail with very complete documentation. The sixty pages of notes attest to the thoroughness of the work. This is the kind of biography one delights to read for it is in direct contrast to the journalistic stories without support which too often pass for history.

HERBERT B. HOWE

Columbia University

Henry Villard and the Railways of the Northwest. By James Blaine Hedges. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930, 224 pp. \$3.00.

One of the most tangled tales of transportation development in the United States is that of the railways of the Pacific Northwest. A region which had only recently been occupied by white settlers was dependent for its potential prosperity upon unbuilt railroads. The seemingly simple connecting thread of a settled region with its transportation needs was badly snarled by many uncontrolled forces: by the rivalry of new towns to be entrepôts for the "inland empire" of mines, by the obstructive tactics of distant railways which would suffer from a rival transcontinental railway in the Northwest, by the awkward interference of Congressional members who wittingly and unwittingly checked the construction of the railroads through a control of land grants, and lastly by the struggle of individuals and of financial groups to enrich themselves from the promotion and control of the projected railways. Into this muddled situation, Henry Villard came from Germany in 1874 as the representative of foreign bondholders of the Oregon and California Railroad, which had defaulted interest payments on its

bonds. Villard with his broad conception, immediately perceived that the welfare of the half-built railway was interlaced not alone with steamship and other railway lines, but with the prosperity of the whole region. The agreement which he made with Ben Holladay, the former stage-coach magnate, who controlled the steamship and railway lines of the Northwest, was acceptable to the German bondholders only if Villard remained to direct the affected companies. With his acquiescence, began his remarkable career of railroad building and consolidation, of stock-market operations, and of harmonizing discordant interests. Realizing the interdependence of railroad and community prosperity, he strove diligently to encourage immigration and to build up the industries of the region. This in brief, is the episode of profound importance in the development of the Northwest which Professor Hedges traces with utmost care and adequate fullness. With the aid of various original sources as guides, the author has patiently followed Villard's transactions, and the results of his researches he has perspicuously interpreted in a concise synthesis. The book is not glamorous or exciting, but it has about it the satisfying, solid, meaty succulence which frequently inheres in the chronicles of a large and important business enterprise.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR.

Columbia University

Builders of the Bay Colony. By Samuel Eliot Morison. Houghton Mifflin Co. 1930. xiv, 365 pp.

Professor Morison writes that "eminence and importance did not" dictate the choice of his "Builders," but rather "those characters of the first generation who appealed (to him) most, and who represent the various aspects of life" in the Bay Colony's first fifty years. Hakluyt, Captain John Smith, and the irrepressible Morton of Merrymount, are rather quickly disposed of in a chapter on "promoters and precursors." The finest examples of New England Puritanism are among the more extended sketches of John White of Dorchester, the elder and the younger Winthrop, Thomas Shepard, one of the most esteemed and best loved of all the clergy, John Hull, goldsmith, Henry Dunster, Nathaniel Ward, Robert Child, John Eliot, Anne Bradstreet. The gentleness that guided the pen in the creation of these portraits has made of them a group of people with a broad humanity, whose puritanism meant a "high sincerity of purpose, an integrity of life, and an eager searching for the voice of God."

The author's attitude toward early New England Puritanism has passed, he assures us, "through scorn and boredom to a warm interest and respect." Professor Morison, however, has gone much farther than his statement suggests, and has become rather a vigorous defender of the Puritans. For the student familiar with the seventeenth century it is not necessary to emphasize the fact that Puritanism was not unfriendly to aesthetics, but to a general audience it is a point well worth making. Again, it was worth stressing that the early immigrants were largely motivated by religion, but it is, perhaps, going too far to assert "that religion, not economics nor politics, was the center and

focus of the . . . Puritan migration to New England." It was probably true of many of the leading members of the Bay Colony but the evidence is not convincing with regard to the great mass of the immigrants. Even so, there is no particular reason for any one to write apologetically about an economic impulse to emigration. As for Professor Morison's capable defense of early Puritan intolerance, one can only say that observers with different temperaments react differently. If one is a sufficiently strong believer, a case can be made out for intolerance on almost any issue; the skeptic doubts whether the price is worth it.

Much that is not familiar even to the well read student of New England's early history will be found in this volume. The writer, by the way, made excellent use of Mather's "Magnalia Christi Americana," a too much despised but unread book. Some of the research incidental to a forthcoming study on early Harvard was the basis for the chapter on Henry Dunster. Anne Bradstreet and the men who appear in these pages are not disembodied spirits; they are endowed with flesh and blood, and the latter sometimes flowed hot. No one can read these very well written pages, nor view the fine illustrations, and still retain the conventional picture of the cartoonist's Puritan.

MICHAEL KRAUS

College of the City of New York

Caribbean Background and Prospects. By Chester Lloyd Jones. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1931. viii, 354 pp. Map. \$4.00.

Haiti under American Control. 1915-1930. By Arthur C. Millspaugh. World Peace Foundation, Boston, 1931. xiii, 253 pp. \$2.50.

The Capitalists and Columbia. By J. Fred Rippy. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1931. xxxii, 256 pp. Maps.

Life in Mexico during a Residence of Two Years in that Country. By Mme. Calderon de la Barca. E. P. Dutton and Company, Ltd., New York, 1931. xxxviii, 542 pp. \$3.00.

The International Conference of American States, 1889-1928. By James Brown Scott. Oxford University Press, New York, 1931. xlv, 551 pp. \$3.50.

The first volume here reviewed is a "study of the economic and social factors which have played a part in the life of the communities" of the Caribbean with particular emphasis placed on the period since 1900, for it was in this period that "problems of public health first received serious attention, transportation services by land and sea greatly increased, the population steadily grew in number, the yield of staple crops showed remarkable advance, foreign trade reached record figures and foreign investments multiplied many fold. During this time a fresh stimulus was given to nationalistic movements and the local governments increased in financial and political stability." In this period too "economic progress has been steady and spectacular. In little more than a generation the Caribbean territory has reestablished its position as the world's chief source of supply for cane sugar, become the dominant factor in the trade in tropical fruits,

taken first place in supplying the export market for petroleum, and risen to second rank among regions supplying the coffee trade. Its enterprises have become an important investment field for foreign capital and its governments have become active borrowers of money with which to finance public improvements." These quotations from page VII indicate the author's thesis as well as the scope of the volume. The 15 chapters cover racial factors, health problems, education, economic organization and products, commerce and trade (particularly with the United States), loans and investments, and the probable future of the region. A general bibliography contains the most important references in English on the subject, with a few in other languages added. The index is of limited usefulness.

The second volume, like the other books printed by the World Peace Foundation, is both historical and documentary. It covers in chapters 2 to 6 a detailed and chronological history of Haitian relations with the United States from 1915 to 1930. Chapter I is historical and treats of the country and its history to 1915, briefly indicating the interest of foreign powers in the territory during that period. The six appendices contain documents relating to each of the six chapters.

The work on the whole is scholarly and carefully done, although almost entirely from the United States' viewpoint. The author feels that while most of the relationship between the United States and Haiti during the 16 years here traced was abnormal, the Haitians received considerable benefit from the association, particularly because a stable government resulted. In his concluding sentence the author writes, speaking with the authority of a former Financial Adviser and General Receiver of Haiti: "It should be a satisfaction to citizens of the United States that their own country has been able to render a service to a neighbor in need, and, despite many temptations and difficulties, has at the end of the chapter returned an improved Haiti to the Haitians" (p. 194). Undoubtedly many Haitians would end their volumes differently!

In the third book Dr. Rippey states in his preface that the main purpose in writing this volume has been to examine carefully "the investments and enterprises of United States citizens in Columbia, the difficulties which the capitalists and technologists confronted, something of their losses and profits, what assistance they expected and received [from] the government at home, and the influence of their investments and activities upon Columbia and its relations with the United States." Thus political and commercial relations are generally omitted except in so far as they are necessary to an understanding of other economic relations, and the whole book presents the story of our big business penetration of Columbia with the Panama Canal and oil as favoring motives. However, the work is not as powerful as it first appears to be for in a weak and colorless conclusion the author asserts that while conditions have improved in Columbia in recent years he is unable to determine whether this is the result of "the contribution of Yankee capital and enterprise" or whether it is due "to the achievement of political stability." Such a view would lead the reader to feel that

this is by no means a finished product of investigation.

The book is well organized and well documented but there is no index. The appendix contains bankers' loan contracts translated from the Spanish, since the bankers would not furnish English copies. In places there is evidence of haste in printing. The two maps, so far as their utilitarian value goes, might as well have been omitted. Generally speaking this volume is less critical of the United States than several of the former books touching United States relations with the Hispanic American States published by this company.

The fourth work is a new edition of a once very popular book first published in 1843 at the suggestion of William H. Prescott who wrote an introduction to the first edition. Before this present edition appeared the work had become rare and commanded in consequence a high price in the book market. The author whose maiden name was Frances Erskine Ingles and who was born in Edinburgh, married the Spanish representative to Mexico, Angel Calderón de la Barca and went to live with him in Mexico. There her position brought her into contact with Mexican society, and wishing to inform her friends of her experiences, she wrote a series of 54 letters which are here printed. With very few modifications, to allow for the modernization of certain aspects of Mexican life, these pictures are still quite accurate. And since interest in Mexico is at present very keen the republication of such a work comes at an auspicious time.

The story begins with the leave taking at New York harbour, and carries the traveler to Havana, Cuba, where a brief stop is made, and thence to Vera Cruz, from which place the journey overland continues to Mexico City. In the course of her two years sojourn in Mexico she visits outlying sections and with the eyes of an English traveler she records everything she saw. Her account is always interesting, frequently exciting, and highly amusing. The story is filled with anecdotes and descriptions of great men of the period, and for the student of early 19th century Mexico it is an indispensable aid in giving local colour.

In the final work the student of Pan Americanism now has for the first time in one volume a complete list of the conventions, recommendations, resolutions, reports, and motions adopted by the first six International American Conferences. Heretofore the investigator was forced to search through several volumes, many of which were unevenly distributed in libraries in the United States. By the expression "International American Conference" is meant the Pan American congresses that convened in Washington in 1889-90, in Mexico City in 1901-2, in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, in Buenos Aires in 1910, in Santiago, Chile in 1923, and in Havana in 1928. These meetings have constituted the backbone of Pan Americanism although the many residual conferences which have occurred during the interims between these greater gatherings have covered more topics and have accomplished more concrete results.

The book opens with an historical introduction which outlines some of the historical antecedents of the conference, treating especially the Congress of

Panama, the Pan American Union, the aims of the conferences, and a description of the documents which have resulted from the meetings. An annex to the introduction contains documents relating to the Congress of Panama. At the end of the volume are six appendices containing a number of arbitrarily selected documents which might have been omitted since they have practically no bearing upon the main theme of the book. The index consists of two parts, one of persons and the other of subjects. A valuable addition to the volume would have been a bibliography of pertinent articles dealing with the six conferences.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

The George Washington University

The International Court. By Edward Lindsey. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1931. xix, 347 pp. \$3.75.

The World Court, 1921-1931. By Manley O. Hudson. World Peace Foundation, Boston. 1931. xiv, 245 pp. 1931. \$2.50.

Those who are looking for brief yet authoritative treatments of the Permanent Court of International Justice can hardly fail to be satisfied with these volumes. Whether student, teacher, or "man in the street," it is doubtful if he can find any more useful and more convenient material on this subject, short of the actual sources themselves.

Of the two, Judge Lindsey's volume will possibly possess a somewhat greater appeal for the average reader. It is more in the nature of a running exposition than is the other volume. Three of the nine chapters comprising the body of "*The International Court*" are given over to a general survey of the rise of international law, the growth of international society, and the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907. The ground having been prepared in this fashion, the reader is then acquainted with the plan of the Court, its competence and jurisdiction, its organization, the decisions and advisory opinions; and, finally, a concluding chapter reveals some of the author's opinions of the Court. "A review of the work of the Court demonstrates not only that at last we have a true International Court in operation and normal functioning but that its work is contributing broadly and vigorously to the development and the unification of international law. . . . The notion that a code of rules is a prerequisite to the functioning of an International Court is demonstrated to be an erroneous one. . . . Rather is it the case that the existence of the International Court is the most essential prerequisite for the complete development of international law" (p. 251). Of the advisory opinion he says: "It has furnished a prompt and convenient method of bringing a legal question before the Court for decision and experience has demonstrated its usefulness and value" (p. 250).

In the composition of his volume Prof. Hudson had a different aim in view. It is a handbook, and little more; but it is an eminently satisfactory one. Where Judge Lindsey devotes some seventy pages to the antecedents of the Court, Prof. Hudson disposes of this phase of the matter in a brief three. Indeed, in the

latter volume the entire history of the Court is given only ten pages. But for a handbook this is probably a sufficient treatment; the value of the book lies rather in its organization of material. All of the important documents are reproduced: those dealing with the signature and ratification of instruments relating to the Court; the instruments themselves; and the proposed ratification by the United States. To anyone who has tried to piece together the different parts of the story of American adhesion to the Court, this volume comes as an especially valuable aid. Prof. Hudson is known as a friend of the Court, and it is not surprising, therefore, to read his appraisal of its worth: "The Court is now firmly established. In ten years, it has more than justified the expectations of its founders. It stands to-day thoroughly embedded in the world's treaty law. It is not merely an ornament, but a vital force in world affairs. In a brief decade, it has become indispensable to the international life of our time" (p. 10).

The abstracts of the judgments and advisory opinions contained in Prof. Hudson's handbook are more concise and, possibly, better done than are those in Judge Lindsey's book. The latter, on the other hand, contains interesting and significant material representative of the different viewpoints on the project to establish a permanent court presented to the two Hague Conferences. It also points out the changes made by the League Council and Assembly in the Jurists' Draft of the Statute of the Permanent Court.

The title of Judge Lindsey's volume is unfortunate. In the United States the phrase "World Court" is used almost everywhere to designate the Permanent Court of International Justice. Some confusion is caused, therefore, in calling it the "International Court." And the confusion is increased when, in the text, the phrases, "Hague Tribunal," "International Court of Justice," and "International Court" are all used to designate the Permanent Court.

DONALD C. BLAISDELL

Williams College

Herder and the Foundations of German Nationalism. By Robert R. Ergang. Columbia University Press, New York, 1931. 288 pp. \$4.50.

The great development of historiography in the nineteenth century was so keyed to the growth of national consciousness that few historians have been sufficiently self-aware to separate the two. Professor Hayes's history seminar at Columbia continues to be one of the few places in America where nationalism is treated as an historical rather than an innate force. An entire domain of activity, hitherto unstudied despite its tremendous effects, is being opened up. Several studies have already appeared, and the one at hand is certainly not the least of these.

Dr. Ergang's work is a successful attempt to uncover and evaluate the ideas of nationalism in Herder's writings and to trace their workings on the minds of men. Herder has indeed effected changes in so many of the humanistic and social disciplines, that he has usually been treated in part rather than as a whole.

Numerous articles and studies have been written on his rôle in the storm and stress movement, in the romantic movement, in the study of folk culture, in comparative philology, in the development of history and anthropology, and so on. In his scholarly study Dr. Ergang has re-integrated this astoundingly fertile mind and shown that its mainspring was an ardent nationalism. Such is the obscurity surrounding the man to whom so many scholars bow in passing, that this is, so far as the reviewer knows, the first thorough work on Herder as a nationalist, and the first major study of his writings in English in nearly fifty years. With its publication Johann Gottfried Herder (1744-1803) takes his rightful place beside Rousseau, Watt, and Marx; for if these are to be regarded as the fathers of modern democracy, industrialism and socialism, Herder must stand as the father of modern nationalism.

In a brief paragraph (pp. 134-5) Dr. Ergang has started his estimate of Herder's significance: "Herder was indeed the high priest of nationality who preached the gospel of nationality as the royal road to strength and greatness. In an age when the political and economic foundations for national unity were lacking, Herder endeavored to make the German people conscious of their cultural ties. Despite the political and economic division he saw a spiritual unity and sketched the symbols of this unity for his countrymen in unmistakable terms. More than this, he endeavored to strengthen the cultural ties which existed and to create new ones which would assist in binding the German people into a compact group. The goal of the German people, he told them, must be self-realization. In this way he set up for his countrymen an ideal of future achievement which was to serve as a psychological basis in the struggle for political and economic unity. In a word, Herder formulated the idea of German nationalism."

Dr. Ergang presents his material in eight chapters. The first offers the historical setting, the second a biographical sketch. We are brought then to Herder's own writings; and here the author makes his real contribution to our knowledge of Herder. He has shifted and arranged into a system the numerous fleeting ideas to be found in the voluminous, many-sided and many-formed writings of the man. These he presents under the following heads: Herder's Conception of Nationality, Nationality and Germany, Nationality and Language, Nationality and Literature, Nationality and History. The concluding chapter is called Herder's Place in the History of Nationalism. The author has buttressed his argument with numerous quotations from Herder, with the fanciful German for the most part skillfully rendered; if nothing else, the book affords access to Herder's words in English translation. In presenting the various aspects of Herder's thought, the author seeks also to trace their effect. This is necessary and valuable, though the very wide orbit of the German writer's influence and inspiration compels much reliance on secondary writings.

Lacking space for more extended treatment, the reviewer must rest content to point out one inconsistency,

important because it threatens to creep into the writings of other students of nationalism. Dr. Ergang tells us that Herder, like his age, was unpolitical, with his interests centered chiefly on culture (p. 247). In the narrower sense, this statement is true; but the historian of to-day, and especially the historian of nationalism, can no longer interpret narrowly. For us politics must include not merely the problem of governing, but that whole stress and strain of class relationships—in economic, social and cultural spheres—the balance of whose forces is government. In the narrower sense there were, as Ergang points out, no channels for political ideas. The petty despots, reigning with aristocratic support, did not need them; the weak German middle classes, lacking in self-confidence, had not yet begun to develop them. Precisely because of this, like the French before them, the Slavs after them, German middle class consciousness was to express itself in the religious and cultural sphere before it found expression in political and economic demands. In this, indeed, Herder played a great rôle; for, broadly speaking, his nationalism was a cultural form of democratic striving. From the localism and class exclusiveness of petty despotism appealed to the broad, solid mass of those who spoke the German language and continued the German folk culture and folk tradition; in them he saw the true unit of German history, and, when he dared express it, of the state. For the aristocracy he had no use; he called them *Dummköpfe* and could hardly be civil to them. When the French Revolution broke out he began his famous "Letters on the Advancement of Humanity." Had Dr. Ergang included a discussion of the things which Herder wrote but dared not print, it might have been seen that Herder was not—and never had been—"unpolitical" in the broader sense; that his voluminous writings on cultural nationalism were designed (to re-quote Dr. Ergang) "to set up for his countrymen an ideal of future achievement which was to serve as a psychological basis in the struggle for political and economic unity"; and that this, in the broadest and deepest sense of the word, is political.

The book is an important addition. We shall look to Dr. Ergang to complete his equipment and to give us a definitive life and times of one of the most fruitful and influential persons in German intellectual history.

ISIDOR GINSBURG

Yonkers, New York

Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury 1533-1556. By Hilaire Belloc. Philadelphia and London. J. B. Lippincott Co. 1931. pp. 333. \$5.00.

It is a curious fact that almost all biographies and all good ones are written in a spirit sympathetic to the man treated. The author may start out with the intention of denouncing some historic figure. Yet as he studies the man's life, his problems, his trials, he often comes to understand the actions which he once condemned. Gradually, grudgingly, the labor of enmity is transformed into one of love.

It is an evidence of Mr. Belloc's strength of character that he has so sturdily withstood any tendency

toward sympathy or understanding in this biography of Cranmer. In fact, so little has the theme of the archbishop's life enthralled him that he diverges again and again into long disquisitions on the history of the Bible, the state of England or the popularity of Princes Mary. As a result no picture of Cranmer rises from the pages of the book and the skeleton of biographical fact taken over in large part from the work of Pollard is never clothed in flesh.

None the less the book has a value, for it gives an extreme point of view on a period of English history that is in some way suitable for historical controversy. If the reader can ignore the cruder partisan thrusts, such as the denomination of the Council of Edward VI as a "gang"; if he can remember to take the presentation of Cranmer's motives and plans at the various stages of his career as opinion rather than fact; if finally he can discount the theme of inevitably or fatality that runs through the work, then he can enjoy the book as a well written example of *histoire à thèse*.

That *Cranmer* is well-written must be emphasized. Save for a few careless passages, it flows along with an easy and graceful yet dignified style. Occasionally even when Mr. Belloc is moved in one direction or another, he rises to almost the height of fine dramatic prose writing.

CHARLES WOOLSEY COLE

Columbia University

History of Russia from the Earliest Times to the Rise of Commercial Capitalism. By M. N. Pokrovsky. Translated and edited by J. D. Clarkson and M. R. M. Griffiths. New York: International Publishers, 1931. xvi, 383 pp. \$3.50.

Professor Michael N. Pokrovsky is unquestionably the most outstanding Marxist historian. He was the first one to survey the entire course of Russian history from a carefully conceived and consistently developed Marxist viewpoint. In a sense, he completely shook up the historiography of his predecessors, turned it inside out, and then claimed that he was the first one to discover the true historical face of Russia. This claim, presented in the original Russian in 1910-12, is for the first time placed before the English-reading public in the form of the present volume. The companion volume, now in preparation, will complete the English version of this unique *History of Russia* by carrying the story through the establishment of the Soviet régime in 1917.

The American reader, who is likely to be unfamiliar with Pokrovsky's position as a Russian historian, must not be confused by some of the sweeping statements the author makes in his preface to the English translation. According to Pokrovsky, "Russian historiography knows no Michelet. . . . In Russia landlord historians are succeeded by historians of a new class. . . . Almost without transitional stages the philosophy of the nobility is replaced by the philosophy of the proletariat. . . . In the realm of historical conceptions there is nothing for us to borrow from our predecessors." And he goes on to say that there are two basic, sharply defined, periods in the study of the Russian

historical process. "The first runs from Karamzin to Klyuchevsky." Where the second one begins is modestly enwrapped in eloquent silence.

The fact is, of course, that Pokrovsky's birth as a Marxist historian was not quite as spontaneous as all that. Shchapov (1830-1876), for example, was not exactly a "philosopher of the nobility." A representative of the petty bourgeoisie of the 'sixties, he was first to use a materialistic interpretation of Russian history. It is true that his materialistic approach was over-simplified and crude: he treated the economic factors of history directly as natural phenomena without establishing a functional relationship between these factors and the system of production. Un-Marxist though he was, he definitely belongs to the ranks of the materialistic school. Even S. M. Solovyov (1820-1879), this Hegelian apologist of enlightened autocracy, must be credited with the use of some not very strongly pronounced but important materialistic categories. For it was Solovyov who stressed the economic importance of river routes in Russian history, and approached the formation of the Muscovite State from an economic angle. Nor can we overlook the fact that Klyuchevsky (1841-1911), who was Pokrovsky's immediate teacher at the Moscow University, is guilty of including a number of basically materialistic concepts into his eclectic scheme. And finally N. A. Rozhkov (1868-1927), a Socialist-Menshevik, whose work was chronologically parallel to, but independent from, that of Pokrovsky, should be noted as the author of the first completely materialistic treatise in Russian history. To give one instance of his voluminous original spade-work one might mention his excellent study of agrarian aspects of the XVIth century Muscovite *Rus*. This approach to the period as well as a number of purely conceptual details originated by Rozhkov, the reader will encounter in Pokrovsky's volume. Pokrovsky's great achievement, however, consists in producing for the first time a harmonious synthesis where Rozhkov and others got hopelessly lost in details.

Broadly stated, Pokrovsky's scheme is somewhat like this: Economic development, as manifested by systems of production historically superseding one another, gives rise to certain social groupings corresponding to these systems of production; in other words, history of economy cannot be separated from history of society, which is the history of origins and development of social classes carried out in terms of class struggle. Law, religion, literature, and art are phenomena derived from the same, essentially economic, foundation. Pokrovsky goes over the entire history of Russia to achieve a complete revaluation of historical values. Armed with his Marxian scheme as with a lancet, he cuts, opens up and removes the false and anomalous growths he finds on the body of Russian history.

Surveying the history of the Slavs, or rather those ethnical groups which ultimately formed the Muscovite State, he carefully examines the nomadic economy of the Slavonic clans and traces the formation of the tribal *veche* and the appearance of the tribal princes. The traditional "historical" legend of the calling of the

Varangian princes is shown with ingenious simplicity to be nothing but a legend. The tribal order is superseded by the appearance of towns. At the same time, economic development causes stratification into classes—the village *smerdy*, the slave-owning aristocracy of towns, and the artisans-traders. Similarly, the primitive collective *pechishche* grows out into a feudal *votchina* or manor with the ensuing differentiation between producer and consumer. A violent class struggle is shown to be present as early as in the XIth century between the usurious aristocracy and the trading classes it exploits. Characterizing the XIIth century as the period of greatest development of town-democracy in the south-west, Pokrovsky assigns the appearance of town-democracy to the northern and north-eastern part of Rus, and describes the process of feudalization from its beginning in the XIIIth century, when large-scale land ownership with its powerful princes overwhelms the democratic *veche* everywhere, except in Novgorod where a *veche* republic is established. The Church, having accumulated substantial wealth, becomes an active social force in the XIVth century.

The process of feudalization continues. Large-scale land ownership becomes crystalized in the Moscow Rus. Hence the aggrandizement of the Moscow Principality until it becomes the Muscovite State. The development of exchange in the XVIth century stimulates the growth of commercial agriculture which, in turn, gives rise to attachment of peasants to the soil. With the increasing differentiation of classes, social relationships become more complex; commercial capital begins to come into power. The period of Ivan the Terrible, of Godunov, and of the "Troubled Times" is treated in terms of this many-sided struggle which rises to a chaotic climax in the days of the "Troubles." Commercial capital triumphs and the crisis is liquidated. By the third quarter of the XVIIth century the Russian State of bureaucracy and of serfdom is fully formed. The part played by the commercial capital during the reign of Peter I in the first quarter of XVIIIth century is given special attention. Russian commercial capital finds a competitor in the form of foreign capital, and suffers heavy losses in the ensuing economic battle. These monetary reverses are established as a cause of the subsequent reaction of the nobility against the bourgeoisie, a reaction which characterized the reign of Peter's immediate successors (1725 to 1762).

It is easy, by so summarizing the most salient peculiarities of Pokrovsky's treatment in a few sentences, to create an impression that his book is extremely dry and one-sided. On the contrary, his narrative is colorful, even sparkling; his characterizations of historical personalities are made with acid-like wit. There is more drama in his conflicts of social forces than one could ever find in the personal conflicts as described by the old-fashioned historians. One may find much with which to disagree in Pokrovsky's book, one may reject many of his conclusions, but one would hardly refuse to acknowledge the fact that his critical and original mind has created a thoroughly scientific new conception of the Russian historical process.

The present volume contains a considerably compressed version of the original book. The text is carefully translated into easy, readable English and edited with obvious competence.

BORIS B. SHISKIN

New York City

History of Palestine and Syria. By A. T. Olmstead. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1931. xxxii 664. pp. \$7.50.

This work, by the Professor of Oriental History at the University of Chicago, is similar in form to the same author's *History of Assyria and to Breasted's History of Egypt*, and will take its place beside those two volumes as a standard work of reference. The period covered extends from the chalcolithic age to the invasion of Palestine by Alexander the Great, and thus furnishes a useful companion to Biblical studies as well as to the study of Mediterranean civilization. It may be noted at the outset that the book is unquestionably the best on the subject in English and one of the best in any language, although, as will be noted later, it leaves something to be desired as an interpretation of Hebrew thought and civilization.

First, some of its admirable features should be pointed out. The author, who is well equipped by his travels in the Near East and his knowledge of oriental languages to deal with source material, has made judicious use of the very latest archaeological discoveries and critical discussions, and so, for example, the reader will find reliable information about such matters as the monuments of Sapuna, Samaria, Beth Shean, Sinai, or the relations of Hittite and Palestinian culture so far as they have been illuminated by recent finds. Moreover the book is abundantly illustrated by plans, pictures of sites, pottery, inscriptions and the like and these are invariably well chosen, clearly reproduced and conveniently placed. This alone gives Professor Olmstead's *History* a great advantage over such an excellent work as Kittle's *Geschichte des Volkes Israel*, although the latter is superior in some other respects. The author has a talent for archaeological description and a fine sense of narrative order, and so, instead of merely giving a confusing preliminary account of excavations in Palestine and Syria, and a general explanation of their bearing on our knowledge of ancient cultures, he has so arranged his chapters that on account of the successive strata of the various important sites is given in its appropriate chronological place and in this way the reader learns something of the progress of history and civilization in these local communities at the same time that he follows the development of the general history of the peoples in the whole region. In addition to these admirable qualities, the work is recommended by its prevailing accuracy, its objectiveness, clearness of exposition and the generally interesting style of the narrative, which while not always eloquent or distinguished, is almost never dull or careless.

The reviewer has noted the following few points for criticism or query; p. 50, the interpretation of "Canaan" as "low country" is doubtful; p. 91, not all the names of the letters of the old Semitic alphabet

are as certain as the author, with his colleague Professor Sprengling, assumes; p. 116, the relation of Hurrian ("proto-Hittite") to the modern languages of the Caucasus, while probable, as Speiser has shown, is still not as certain as Olmstead seems to hold; p. 131, in the statement "so like is their (the Kurds') intonation to English that the traveller instinctively turns to discover who is speaking his language, only to find a gaudily dressed Kurd" does not make clear whether American or British English is meant, and really is no proof of linguistic affinity to Indo-European, which is, of course, well established on other grounds, and is moreover rather provincial in implying that the traveller must be English-speaking; p. 251, the identification of Iaudi in North Syria with Judah (Hebr. *Yehudah*) should be stated less positively; on p. 248 and p. 252 we have two different etymologies of the name *Levi*, each of which seems to be accepted in turn, although obviously both cannot be right; p. 478, we are told that the officials of Hezekiah asked the Assyrian general to speak Aramaic and not "Jewish"—a rather inept translation of the biblical *Yehudith* (2 Kings xviii. 26), better render "Judaean"; p. 570, it is not an exaggeration to say that scholars in recent years have "almost unanimously" questioned the genuineness of the Aramaic rescripts in Ezra-Nehemiah. Finally a most astonishing lapse must be noted on p. 483 n. 3, where we have a reference to "Talmud Bab. Jabmuth iv, 13." One wonders whether Professor Olmstead has ever consulted the Babylonian Talmud. The treatise cited is, of course, *Yebamoth*, and the Talmud is always quoted by folio (in this case, 49b on the Mishnah iv, 13).

As was intimated above, this History of Palestine and Syria, while a really valuable and welcome book, is yet not a great or monumental work. The author has not the acuteness of a Wellhausen, a Graetz or an Eduard Meyer, nor the ingenuity and evocative sympathy of a Kittel or a Gressmann, to mention those scholars with whom he should be compared. This is noted as an unfortunate fact, not as a remediable defect. He has discussed the course of political and religious history intelligently and honestly rather than with illuminating insight or philosophic breadth. The book's great virtue lies in its full presentation of source material and clear arrangement rather than in originality, profundity or suggestiveness.

RALPH MARCUS

Jewish Institute of Religion, and Columbia University

The Story of the American People. By Mary G. Kelty. Ginn and Company, New York, 1931. 663 pp. \$1.40.

Motion Pictures in History Teaching. By Daniel C. Knowlton and J. Warren Tilton. Yale University Press, 1929. 282 pp. \$2.00.

Betsy Ross, Quaker Rebel. By Edwin S. Parry, direct descendant of Betsy Ross. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1931. 266 pp. \$2.00.

We have here three interesting and informing books dealing with American History—all suitable for chil-

dren in the middle grades of the Elementary School.

The first mentioned *The Story of the American People*, by Mary G. Kelty, a teacher of much ability and experience is exceptionally well printed with attractive binding, type and illustrations. The book uses effectively all the principal modern methods and ideas in education—such as silent reading, tested vocabulary, emphasis on essentials with minimum of details, self-testing exercises, the visual appeal, the unit system and suggestions of verification of the text by experiment.

This reviewer is particularly pleased to note that the author and publishers have joined the increasing number of publishers who use a capital letter in mentioning the Negro Race. The book, however, unfortunately is not an improvement on the average history in treating of the part played by the Colored Race in the Reconstruction. Here the total impression given the child is that it was a mistake to give the Negroes the ballot because they were black and that the Ku Klux Klan was a necessary outcome of the excesses of the Negroes and Carpetbaggers. With this exception the reviewer considers the book an excellent text.

The second book, *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*, by Knowlton and Tilton of the Yale University Educational Department, is an attempt to evaluate the results of visual instruction through the use of the photoplays known as the "Yale Chronicles of American Photoplays" for the Junior High School level. The experiment was carefully carried out by recognized experts and this book, presenting the results of their research and experiments is a valuable contribution for the information of professional educators including teachers, but it is too technical and statistical to be of general interest.

The last book, *Betsy Ross, Quaker Rebel*, is a biography which gives information not generally known about this interesting character and on the whole is a valuable source of information as well as an entertaining and inspiring book to read.

A. H. GORDON

Georgia State Industrial College
Savannah, Georgia

Book Notes

Bosquejo Historico de la Agregacion a Mexico de Chiapas y Soconusco. (Historical Sketch of the Annexation of Chiapas and Soconusco to the Republic of Mexico) by Andres Clemente Vasquez. (Mexico, D.F.; 1932; *Publicaciones de la Secretaria de Relaciones Exteriores*; Archivo Historico Diplomatico Mexicano, #36; xv, 661 p.) Chiapas and Soconusco were independent political units which had their origin in the emancipation of the Central American republics in 1821. Soconusco remained as part of Chiapas until three years later when it was claimed by a group of political partisans in the name of Guatemala. When, by agreement between Mexico and Central America, Chiapas voted for union with Mexico Soconusco was included as an integral part of Chiapas, the act of the partisans having received no official recognition. This

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latest volume of the Mexican Diplomatic Archives deals with this phase of Mexican history. It consists largely of letters relative to the Chiapas question and the signatures of Lucas Alaman (the historian?), Diez de Bonilla, and Pedro Molina occur frequently. Its eighteen chapters bring it down to 1833 and the résumé at the end of each chapter synthesizes the evidence offered. A valuable addition to the source materials already included in this series of publications. HOWARD BRITTON MORRIS.

A publication of interest to all students of American foreign policy is that entitled *The Coöperation of the United States with the League of Nations and with the work of the International Labour Organization* by Ursula P. Hubbard (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, *International Conciliation*, No. 274, November, 1931). It is remarkable in bringing together in a pamphlet of 150 pages details of the various ways in which our government and private citizens have participated in the work carried on at Geneva. Appendices include documents, a calendar of events, statistics, and an alphabetical list of individuals. One of the interesting appendices records various payments made by the United States government toward the expenses of League Conferences in which we have participated; another lists the gifts of individual Americans and American organizations for specific purposes. The value of Miss Hubbard's work for reference can thus be appreciated.—MILTON W. HAMILTON.

Only occasionally does a volume appear dealing with Porto Rico, but no book covers so much ground in so short a space as does *Porto Rico. A Caribbean Isle* by R. J. Van Deusen and Elizabeth K. Van Deusen (342 pages, Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1931). The authors have produced a condensed history of the country which includes the Pre-Columbian, Spanish, and United States periods together with a treatment of the islands' government, people, religion, culture, and education. Besides, it is to a certain extent a book of description and travel. The publishers believe that this volume will be considered a standard and definitive work of Porto Rico, and for the time being at least this is true. However, the book should be considered in connection with Dr. Victor S. Clark's *Porto Rico and its Problems* (1930), which it should be noted is not listed among the "Books Consulted" at the end of the volume, and with Miss Lynskey's *Porto Rico and the United States* (1931)—A.C.W.

Fleming H. Revell Co., has recently published (223 pages, New York, 1931) a volume by John T. Faris entitled *Seeing South America*, which is purely a travel account written by a man who went to South America in order that he might record for his fellow citizens in the United States "an up-to-date picture of the marvelous country that lies beyond the south of the Gulf of Mexico." It is an illustrated personal narrative of what the author saw and did, and how he traveled. In his peregrinations Mr. Faris journeyed down the East Coast, crossed Argentina to Chile, and traveled through the west coast countries. His account is mixed

with historical data, pertinent observations, and friendly description, and will be of interest to any one contemplating a journey to South America either by air, land or water. The last chapter is entitled "When you plan your South American tour" and contains useful information for travellers.—A.C.W.

Another volume which deals with an Hispanic American country has come from the Press of the Brookings Institute in Washington. It is entitled *The Cuban Situation and our Treaty Relations* and the author is Philip G. Wright (The Brookings Institute, Wash., D.C., 1931, xiv, 207 pp.). The study centers around the problem of sugar production in Cuba for since seventy-five per cent of her sugar is under American control there is a close connection between the island's economic life and her relations with the United States, particularly those relations which concern the Platt amendment and the Reciprocity Treaty. The volume shows how Cuba has been brought to the verge of ruin by her "one-crop" and it attempts to suggest remedies. The work is a careful study and should be given serious consideration.—A.C.W.

Mr. Orton Lowe has edited for Appleton & Company Edith Wharton's "*The Age of Innocence*," and it is now published in their educational edition at \$1.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

(NOTE: List of articles will appear in the January issue.)

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from July 30, to October 15, 1932

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, James T., *The March of Democracy*; Vol 1. N.Y.: Scribner; 444 pp.; \$3.50.
- Addington, Robert M. *History of Scott County, Virginia*. Gate City, Va.: Author; 378 pp.; \$3.50.
- American Historical Prints. Early views of American Cities, etc. N.Y.: Public Library; 362 pp.; \$25.00.
- Bagley, Clarence B., editor. *Early Catholic missions in old Oregon*; Vol. 1. Seattle, Wash.: Lowman & Hanford; 238 pp.; \$10.00, set of 2 vols.
- Blaisdell, Thomas C., Jr. *The Federal Trade Commission; an experiment in the control of business*. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 331 pp.; \$3.00.
- Bogart, E. L. and Brown, Robert B. *Workbook in Economic History of the American People*. N.Y.: Longmans; 80 pp. (2 p. bibl.); 80c.
- Brown, Jennie B. *Fort Hall on the Oregon Trail*.

- Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers; 467 pp.; \$2.50.
- Conner, Sabra. *The fighting Storrs of Oregon* [Oregon pioneers, 1840]. Chicago: Reilly & Lee; 286 pp.; \$1.50.
- Daniels, Winthrop M. *American railroads; four phases of their history*. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press; 120 pp.; \$1.50.
- Dunn, John B. *Perilous trails of Texas*. Dalls: Southwest Press; 172 pp.; \$2.50.
- Ettinger, Amos A. *The mission to Spain of Pierre Soule, 1853-1855*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 570 pp. (240 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Foote, Irving P. *The story of our Republic*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Bk. Co.; 448 pp.; \$1.24.
- Glascock, Earl B. *Gold in them hills: the story of the West's last mining days*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; 330 pp.; \$3.50.
- Haiman, Miciclaus. *Poland and the American Revolutionary War*. Chicago: Polish Roman Catholic Union, 984 Milwaukee Ave.; 208 pp.; \$2.00.
- Hall, Wilmer L. *A bibliography of Virginia, Pt. 4*. Richmond, Va.: Va. State Library; 34 pp.
- Hargrave, Frank F. *A pioneer Indiana railroad; the origin and development of the Monon*. Lafayette, Ind.: Author; Purdue University; 229 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$1.50.
- Hill, Lawrence F. *Diplomatic relations between the United States and Brazil*. Durham, N.C.: Duke Univ. Press; 332 pp. (10 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
- Hinshaw, D., and Albig, W. E. *Stop, look and listen; railroad transportation in the United States*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday; 315 pp.; \$2.50.
- Hubbard, Geraldine H., compiler. *Classified catalogue of the collection of anti-slavery propaganda in the Oberlin College Library*. Oberlin, O.: Oberlin College Lib.; 94 pp.
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- Jillson, Willard R. *The Boone narrative* [Story of Daniel Boone] with bibliography of 238 titles. Louisville, Ky.: Standard Pr. Co.; 61 pp.; \$1.00.
- MacNeel, Mary W. *The history of transportation in the United States* [Teachers' lesson unit]. N.Y.: Teachers College; Columbia Univ.; 21 pp. (4 p. bibl.); 25c.
- Mackey, M. G., and Sory, L. P. *Early California costumes 1769-1847, and historic flags of California*. Stanford Univ., Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press; 148 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
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THE ORIGIN OF THE INTERNATIONAL JOINT COMMISSION

Lawrence J. Burpee, Secretary, International Joint Commission, Ottawa, Canada

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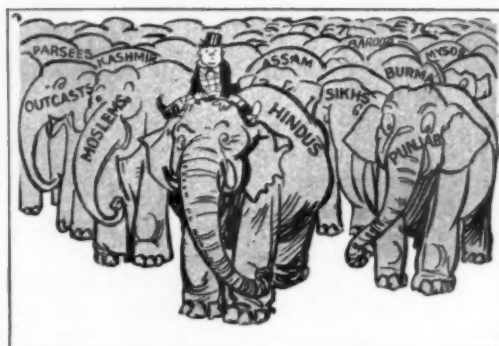
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